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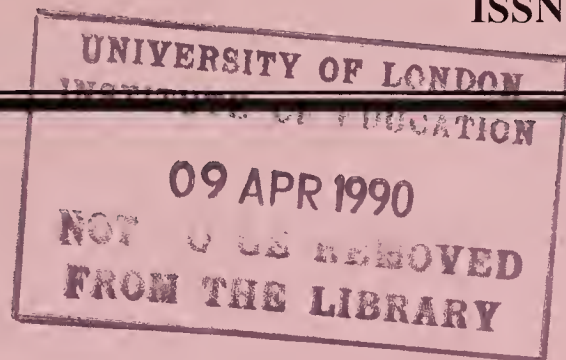
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Convergent Evolution

There is something quite fascinating about convergent evolution; species which are totally unrelated developing to fit a particular niche in their environment in such a way that they grow to resemble each other. So, for example, the wildlife of Australia developed in isolation from the fauna of other continents, but we can easily recognise the marsupials which correspond to the moles, bears, even the flying squirrels of placental mammals.

For some people this convergence in form is evidence of the wisdom of the designer of the universe, for others it is the conclusive demonstration of the power of the environment in shaping the destiny of species. When I was very small, I was taught to check sums after I had added them up; first one would add a column of figures from the top to the bottom, then one would reverse the process to reduce the risk of errors. Arriving at the same answer via two different routes was the best guarantee one had for avoiding mistakes. Convergent evolution is Nature's way of checking her sums.

In the field of human endeavour, too, we see something which approaches convergent evolution, to the extent that it is very often extremely difficult to say, "On this particular day, such and such a person invented the telephone", or "... the light bulb", or even "... discovered oxygen". Necessity is the mother of invention, and necessity tends not to be felt in a specific place at a specific time.

In the course of human history one area in particular came to be cut off, Australia-like, from other areas. Education was supposed to happen to children in schools before they went out into the "real world". Educationists developed wonderful theories about how children should be prepared for the real world, while inhabitants of the real world - parents, industrialists, politicians and bureaucrats - framed wonderful demands to

make of the educational system. One of the principal ways in which human endeavour differs from natural selection is that it is much noisier. The industrialists were vocal in their advice for educationists, the educationists were prolix in their prescriptions for industry. In a million years, no memorandum ever passed from the mammals to the marsupials advising as to future developments.

Even so, there is precious little evidence that the educationists and industrialists were listening to each other, and if they arrived at similar conclusions it would be just as remarkable as finding similar animals from different ancestors. But that does seem to be exactly what we can now find in an approach to quality in both spheres.

As we contemplate the 35th International Conference of WEF on Learner Managed Learning, it is worth considering what learner managed learning is. Although there may be differences of opinion over the precise operations involved, it is clear that learner managed learning is not specific to any one subject area. Rather, it is a process whereby quality of learning can be promoted. To take the words of one of the longest running experiments in learner managed learning, "Effective learning involves repeated cycles of planning; doing; reflecting; and then making sense of the learning. Effective learning is facilitated by support and challenge, from students and staff and others, at each stage of each cycle of learning".¹

In an interesting parallel development, the British Standards Institute is currently promoting a set of procedures for securing quality in the production of goods and services which is not specific to any one process. British Standard 5750 (and the international equivalent, ISO 9000) are about designing processes which are specific to the needs of individual situations: "Review of the quality system is essential and

must include assessment of the results of internal quality audits. You should establish a schedule for review and adjust it on the basis of results and experience. The review should, among other things, reveal defects or irregularities, suggest improvements and check on the effectiveness of management at all levels and ensure that management objectives and methods are achieving the desired results".²

There is, of course, more to both systems than I have space to elaborate on here. But much of that also covers common ground: procedures should be designed to achieve the desired effect, testing procedures should be appropriate to the design goal, and people responsible for implementing procedures should be involved in their design. It certainly looks to be the case that educationists and industrialists are on a similar wavelength.

And so we come to the less than accidental grouping of organisations which come together for a conference on learner managed learning. The WEF principles include the statement that, "Learners should, as early as possible, take responsibility for the management of their own education in association with and support from others". Involvement in learner managed learning cannot be a surprise. Nor can the involvement of the School for Independent Study of the Polytechnic of East London. The School is fully devoted to learner managed learning.

But what of the Education for Capability Committee of the Royal Society for the encouragement of Arts, Manufactures and Commerce? The RSA has a long and noble tradition within education, but interestingly, under that acronym, educationists have been able to forget that the Royal Society of Arts has anything at all to do with Manufactures and Commerce. Now, looking at our case of convergent evolution, we should welcome the fact that Manufactures and Commerce will indeed be represented in the Learner Managed

Learning Conference. In this sense, the conference will be part of a dialogue between educationists and industrialists which has been going on for centuries, and in which the RSA has played an important part.

Looking over the history of that dialogue it is not too difficult to pick out ways in which it can fail. It has failed when educationists have tried to follow production-line methods. Education has different goals from manufacture and commerce. It has failed when educationists have gone cap in hand to industry for money, as the recent failure of the city technology colleges to attract sponsorship in the UK has shown. Manufacture and commerce have different goals from education. And it has failed when either side has seen fit to lecture the other on its own business.

It is harder to find outstanding examples of success in that dialogue, but I would suggest here one possible, and hopeful, direction. Starting from the recognition that there is valuable experience and mutual interest in promoting systems of high quality, systems, moreover, which depend upon high levels of skill and reeducation, there is at last the possibility of cooperation on specific initiatives as equal partners.

David Turner

NOTES

1. *DipHE by Independent Study Student Handbook 1989-90*, School for Independent Study, Polytechnic of East London, p.6

2. *BS 5750/ISO 9000:1987 A Positive contribution to better Business: An executive's guide to the use of the UK National Standard and International Standard for Quality Systems*, British Standards Institute, p.8

CREATING A COMMUNITY OF INQUIRY: PHILOSOPHY FOR CHILDREN

Martin Coles

Abstract

What children know is not more important than the sorts of persons they are growing into. It is important that schools pay as much attention to the process of, and context for, learning as to the content. These views are expressed in certain principles of the World Education Fellowship, detailed at the start of this article. A new educational initiative, Philosophy for Children, has features which suggest that it is an especially suitable vehicle for aiding the realisation of these principles. These features are outlined. In particular the significant emphasis in the Philosophy for Children approach on learner managed learning and on developing communities of inquiry is explained.

Introduction

The Principles of the World Education Fellowship states that:

"The primary purpose of education today is to help all of us to grow as self-respecting, sensitive, confident, well-informed, competent and responsible individuals...

People develop these qualities when they live in mutually supportive environment where sharing purposes and problems generates friendliness, commitment and cooperation. Schools should aim to be communities of this kind.

Learners should, as early as possible, take responsibility for the management of their own education in association with and support from others."

In recent years there has been increasing attention given to the idea that schools should be less concerned with imparting information and more concerned with encouraging teaching which pays attention to aims of the sort noted above in the principles of the World Education Fellowship. Today the National Curriculum, despite the bias towards content, still contains

much which places emphasis on the process of children's learning. In recent years, too, there has been a growing realisation that children's thinking abilities are underestimated. Margaret Donaldson's (1978) critique and reinterpretation of Piagetian theory is an early example of much work which suggests that previous assumptions about children's limited capacity for reasoning are inaccurate.

One result of these ideas has been an explosion in the number of attempts to teach reasoning directly through a range of programmes which contain a variety of strategies and definitions. The Oxfordshire Skills Programme, The Somerset Thinking Skills Course, The Bulmershe-Comino Problem-solving Project, Instrumental Enrichment. These programmes are clearly evidence of a significant intellectual movement, one in which a great deal of thought and energy is being expended. I want here to consider one particular approach to teaching effective thinking, Philosophy for Children, and to explain the special features of this initiative which suggest that its practice, if widely adopted, would aid the realisation of the aims expressed above.

Philosophy with Children?

Is philosophy possible with children? There is a view that it is simply too difficult. Since we see so few young children avidly reading Aristotle or Kant, since we might despair at the possibility of conveying the major tenets of existentialism to a young child we are, as Matthew Lipman (1977) puts it, "led to draw the irresistible inference that there is an unbridgeable chasm between the disciplined reflection that is philosophy and the unbridled wondering characteristic of childhood." Such an inference, though, would be founded on an assumption about education which sees the learning process as the transmission of the contents of human

knowledge from the old to the young. It ignores the alternative theory - the theory which gave rise the Bruner's famous dictum that any subject can be fruitfully taught to a child of any age - which has it that the educational process must generate that thinking characteristic of different studies among those taught. Accordingly the proper teaching of mathematics generates mathematical thinking, of science, scientific thinking, and on this view proponents of philosophy for children assume there is a clear distinction between thinking about a subjects and thinking in a subject. Perhaps the traditional reluctance to discuss matters philosophical with young children is the product of a reliance on an archaic view of education, and if this is the case then the inherent difficulty of the subject should be regarded as an issue for creative consideration; not as a handy argument against attempting any philosophy with young children.

New accounts suggest that creative consideration is being given to the matter. A recent book by Gareth Matthews (1985) explains one attempt to introduce philosophy to children. Every week for a year Matthews and eight school children aged between eight and a half and eleven years old, met together in Edinburgh. Matthews would begin a story that raised some interesting philosophical question and would ask the children to help him finish the story. In the course of this exercise the children demonstrated a remarkable ability for philosophical reflection and analysis. They discussed such questions as whether a flower could be happy, what sort of things words were, and whether we could know that time travel was impossible.

It is in the United States of America though where most attention has been paid to evolving suitable schemes for introducing children of various ages to philosophy. The Institute for the Advancement of Philosophy for Children at Montclair State College has been pioneering the development of curriculum materials, and also teaching methods, designed to foster and expand reasoning skills. My experience using this

material has convinced me that children, even as young as seven years old, can carry on conversations of abstract moral and intellectual significance. The children are fascinated by logical rules, but the real bait is ideas about friendship and fairness and truth - perennial questions interesting to persons of any age. Are all the people you like your friends? Are all your friends people you like? To how many people can you tell a secret before it stops becoming a secret?

Lane and Lane (1986) effectively summarise the nature of the American programme as "based on the fact that discussion skills and listening skills are effective foundations to thinking/reasoning skills. It points to the value of enquiry, encourages the development of alternative modes of thought and imagination and suggests how children are able to learn profitably from one another. It is based firstly on a series of novels for children which illustrate different 'philosophical' problems and modes of reasoning, and secondly on instructional manuals for the teacher.

The programme uses a teaching model that is both non-authoritarian and antidoctrinal... A teacher-centred approach in which the teacher imposes his or her ideas and views on the discussion rather than allowing the children to develop their own is considered to inhibit the development of reasoning skills... However... (the programme) requires the

"The traditional reluctance to discuss matters philosophical with young children is the product of a reliance on an archaic view of education"

teacher, albeit in a subtle manner, relentlessly to 'feed' rationality into the discussion... the teacher should, within the framework of neutrality, encourage children to build on one another's ideas; try to get students to see the implications of what they say; try to get students to become aware of their own assumptions; try to encourage students to find reasons to justify their beliefs."

So the IAPC programme asks children to engage in the kind of serious conversation which encourages them to rehearse in their minds what others have said and assess the relevance and significance of those remarks; to recognise other

perspectives than their own and to explore possibilities in collaborative conversation.

Developing a Community of Inquiry

The teacher's job in teaching Philosophy for Children is to foster a community of inquiry and a cooperative search for greater understanding so that conversation is passed from child to child, so that children learn to value their own thoughts as well as those of others, and so that they learn to subject all ideas, including their own, to careful scrutiny. Of course it would be foolish to pretend that eliciting the kind of philosophical discussion where all these details are achieved is easy, but that fact should not deny the attempt.

I have been engaged in animated and fast-moving discussion in primary classrooms where it is obvious that children are finding it difficult to take turns in debate and it is often not easy persuading them to follow one line of argument through as ideas bounce back and forth; but far more often that not children are totally involved, as were this class of ten year olds when we were discussing what is real and what is not:

"What about a reflection in a mirror. Is that real?" I asked. "Only when you are looking in the mirror", said Andrew. "Yes", added Robert, "something is only real if you know it's there". "But a reflection is there even if I'm not looking into it", said Louise. Rupert disagreed. "Not if it is a totally black room or a room that is all one colour, like yellows". "Yes, I can still imagine a reflection even if I am not looking in the mirror, so it must be real", said Louise. "A reflection is something that doesn't seem to be real but is real".

The discussion came to no conclusion but continued to explore the area of 'things that don't seem to be real but are real' - an artificial flower and a photograph were items discussed in some detail.

The IAPC methodology encourages the freest possible approach. It recommends allowing children to choose topics and initiate discussion

from the variety of ideas thrown up in the novels. It is the teacher's job only to insist upon one thing - rigorous philosophical procedures in pursuing the discussion in order that it should not degenerate into idle conversation.

This policy of non-intervention (as far as is possible) on the part of the teacher is fundamental to the approach advocated by the Philosophy for Children programme. Although lip-service is often paid to the notion of child-centred education, the practice in many classrooms still owes much to the time-honoured model of instruction handed down from above. It is a model which some interpretations of the National Curriculum might encourage. By contrast Philosophy for Children insists that learning is something actively undertaken by the learner and that the only true

teaching consists in initiating and supporting this activity. In other words it practices the principle that "Learners should, as early as possible, take responsibility for the management of their own education in association with and support from other". For

instance if, during a discussion, some fallacy in reasoning occurs that nobody notices, the teacher could stop proceedings and give a short lecture explaining the mistake. But there is another way of proceeding. It is explained by Michael Whalley (1989):

"The teacher could refer back to the original remark where the mistake was made, and ask whether it really followed from what was said before. The group could argue a little about this, and as soon as somebody expresses doubt that it did follow, the teacher could ask, well, why doesn't it follow? - and allow further discussion. In this way children are discovering their own mistakes and attempting to correct each other. Genuine learning is taking place, and the point is much more likely to stick, because the learners have shaped it for themselves."

In order to carry on a discussion in this way children must inevitably learn something of the social skills necessary. They must for instance, learn the importance of listening, in the active

*"Children learn to value
their own thoughts as well
as those of others so that
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to careful scrutiny"*

sense of paying close attention to what others are saying. This is not easy given that traditionally the only person they must listen to in school is the teacher. But to the extent that they become better at listening to each other they will not only get more out of the content of the discussion, but become more aware of each other's differing attitudes and what lies behind those differences. It is through this serious listening and talking to each other that a mutually supportive environment is built where "sharing purposes and problems generates friendliness, commitment and cooperation".

This kind of classroom ethos is summarised by Matthew Lipman (1988) in his description of the overall aim of Philosophy for Children as the formation of 'communities of inquiry'. Its origin is attributed to the work of L.S.Vygotsky (1962) who compared children doing intellectual work cooperatively with those working in competition. The ultimate social importance of this idea of a community of inquiry, and the connected principles of the WEF, could be immense.

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HOW DO ADULT STUDENTS LEARN ABOUT EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES?

Yvonne Hillier

Abstract
The author reviews the ways in which prospective adult learners gain information about educational opportunities. This report includes an assessment of who does, and who does not, use the information services which are available. She concludes with some recommendations to ensure that those for whom educational opportunities are available are also enabled to find out about them.

Introduction

In England and Wales, there are three main sources of education for adults: higher education

institutions mainly comprising of polytechnics and universities, further education colleges and adult education institutions. In the past, most adults who received any form of post school education did so through 'adult education' which had an image of leisure activities despite offering a hard core of vocationally relevant courses. Traditionally the majority of students in further and higher education have entered the institutions with school leaving qualifications. Currently, because of demographic changes, there has been increased interest in recruiting adults who traditionally have not entered further and higher education.

Encouraging adults to take advantage of the opportunities available in further and higher education requires educational advice and guidance and information on the whole range of courses available. Recently, technological advances have created further means of passing information from one source to its audience. More traditional means continue to be used by institutions which do not have access to hardware and for audiences which do not use this form of information.

The majority of formal information systems have been provided for higher and further education. Yet, the lessons that have been learnt from reaching adults in the traditional 'non-vocational' adult education service apply to all institutions involved with adult and continuing education.

Technological Information

Information about educational opportunities no longer exists solely to ensure the correct enrolment of students. Adults need to know about the opportunities provided for them. With the bewildering array of learning modes and training opportunities offered by institutions, private and public, and the facilities offered by information technology, information can now be stored and retrieved in a manner which previously would have been impossible. There have been developments in rationalising further education provision by modularising courses, encouraged by the establishment of the National Council for Vocational Qualifications (NCVQ). In addition databases and information systems have been established, including the Training Access Points (TAPS) system piloted by the Training Agency, ECCTIS (Educational Counselling and Credit Transfer System), MARIS (Materials and Resources Information Service) and the PICKUP short course directory. The Further Education Unit (FEU) has been involved in developing the Further Education Curriculum Information System (FECIS), and the National Education Resources Information System (NERIS) adds to the list of acronyms. If

one also includes the guidance packages JIIG-CAL, CASCAID and Career Builder, the bewildering array of options suggests a need for the 'person in the street' to find assistance with advice and guidance.

Traditional Publicity

Despite the availability of computer packages for information purposes, many adult education centres do not possess the hardware to provide an education guidance service. Publicity of new courses operates through traditional means of communication, i.e. the prospectus. Leaflets covering specific courses are used to give more detailed information. The local newspapers carry large advertisements prior to the September enrolment sessions. This wealth of printed information is distributed to households. Telephone numbers and named contacts are provided for students who require additional information. Local libraries, agencies such as the Citizens' Advice Bureau and the Town Hall are venues for the information to be distributed.

Technical Benefits

Many potential students are mature women who have been at home with domestic responsibilities. These women who are returning to work or study may not be aware of the opportunities that exist or even of the technological advances which have revolutionised the dissemination of this information. Even if people do know how to use the hardware, there are questions about how information can be accessed, including the hidden extra costs of travelling to a source or taking time off work to reach the database. There has to be a judgement about the relative gains from a computer over a pen and pencil.

'Besides, what exactly does the computer add to the process apart from a little glamour?' (UDACE, 1988, p16)

Targeting

The main issue is whether these sources of information reach the client groups and whether

"Relying solely on wider publicity for pre-planned courses will not be sufficient"

there are alternative methods which could be employed. Recent moves to reach groups not traditionally associated with adult education have been sponsored by Replan, the DES funded initiative to provide education for the unemployed. Among the lessons learnt is that to reach adults who have been disaffected by educational institutions, using the local library is not necessarily the most potent force. Word of mouth which already operates in traditional mainstream adult education may also act as a source of information for other groups. Outreach work is often the first step in contacting the client group. This is extremely time consuming and requires a network of individuals and agencies both statutory and voluntary. It is also a move away from the more 'consumerist' notion of adult education i.e. 'come and get it', and it is an important part of the curriculum development process. Replan noted that this should be seen not as a short term measure but a development that would promote 'dialogue credibility and links' between the client group and the mainstream providers in the long term (Replan, 1987, p68). Clearly the recommendations are relevant to a much wider target. Women returners are often not only unwaged but also difficult to contact. If providers wish to identify and respond to the educational needs of such women, relying solely on wider publicity for pre-planned courses will not be sufficient. Flexibility in provision once contact has been made and needs have been expressed requires a different form of publicity. Simply offering a course without any clearly defined aims may not necessarily attract individuals into the college premises. However, a structured course may not be what the students want either. There is a dilemma in how to publicise a course which will be flexible enough to meet the changing needs of the target group but which will carry enough information to attract that group in the first place.

"Adults who do not have any association with education have a view that it is 'intrinsically uninteresting, not worth giving time to and of little practical use or value'"

Need for Guidance

Educational guidance services are vital, not only by sensitive first contact procedures but also throughout the students' involvement with the educational institution. Up to date information and availability of a whole range of educational and employment opportunities is necessary for this service to operate.

The vested interests of institutions are likely to interfere with guidance. An institution which has to fill its courses may not necessarily act in the best interest of the client. There is a danger that adults will be directed on to certain courses simply because there are spaces that need to be filled and not because it is the most suitable course for that person. It is not unknown for students in adult education centres to be offered quite diverse courses as alternatives to one that is full.

Users of Guidance Services

Holloway (1987) found that at least 30 percent of the population has sought some form of guidance about training or education but that these people have mainly been under 35, from higher socio-economic groups and far more

likely to have educational qualifications already. Those who did not use existing services were likely to be older, of lower socio-economic status and without educational qualifications. She also found that even where information existed, many individuals were unable to use it effectively.

She identified two main groups of potential users of guidance services. The first group were able to define their needs relatively clearly and were able to find an agency which they saw as appropriate. The second group were far less likely to have defined their needs clearly and may have had negative attitudes to education and training. They were unlikely to relate easily to the major guidance providers unless the latter had an informal and accessible 'ambience'. They were more likely to have been

recommended by a friend or relative. They were also more likely to relate to specialist agencies for a variety of purposes including careers, education and training. She suggested that collaboration between these agencies and the major providers in the form of information exchange, increased understanding of each others' role and regular visits by workers from the major providers would enable more people to take advantage of guidance provision. However, comprehensive and accessible information is not going to satisfy the expressed needs of either group. The advisory process which widens options and raises confidence 'must come first' (p39). For women returners who lack confidence, assessing what they are capable of achieving and at what stage in their interaction with educational provision is a prerequisite if the match between expressed needs and potential is to be achieved.

Non-users of Guidance Services

On a more pessimistic level, a recent survey of adult participation in Education and Training in Scotland found that, unlike the interest shown by returners, adults who do not have any association with education have a view that it is 'intrinsically uninteresting, not worth giving time to and of little practical use or value'. (Munn and MacDonald, 1988, p12)

Marketing and publicity is not the magic answer to problems of low rates of participation, but the authors found that ignorance of existing opportunities was widespread. The picture is not clearly delineated:

'Factors such as the cost of courses and travelling are just not relevant if you are uninterested in returning. Conversely, such factors are unlikely to prevent return, if there is a commitment to returning' (Munn and MacDonald, 1988, p28).

Emerging from this grey area is the possibility that some adults who are very committed to returning will finally be able to seek out the information they need, whereas others who may

be wishing to do something without a clearly defined goal may be deterred from taking it any further simply because they do not know of the opportunities that exist or indeed where to find out about them.

Need for Coordination

The array of routes and pathways into adult education is bewildering. One of the lessons of the experience of adult education for increasing access for adults into any form of post school education is the need for a coordinated information service. The Advisory Council for Adult and Continuing Education (ACACE) warned that:

'The present lack of locally available information, advice and counselling restricts the reach of the education service and this restriction is likely to become more evident as the supply of educational opportunities for adults increases. It is also an unnecessary restriction which could be removed at comparatively little cost if local education authorities, working in cooperation or supporting the establishment of information, advisory and counselling services for adults throughout the country' (ACACE, 1982, 5.4).

This coexists with the need to reach certain target groups which in the past have eschewed

adult education. Adult education has learnt many lessons. If a course is to be 'marketed' the problems of inconsistency in the availability of information for

various groups should be heeded. Clearly, reaching certain client groups is not necessarily going to occur through traditional sources. Discovering the most potent means of disseminating information may be achieved partly through trial and error and must take into account the individual circumstances of the institution. Wherever opportunities for adult and continuing education occur, there must be the resources to disseminate the information to as wide a range of potential users as possible. Information alone is not enough. Institutions need to offer guidance. This should be comprehensive; Holloway (1987) noted that the

"Information alone is not enough. Institutions need to offer guidance"

term ‘guidance’ embraces seven activities: informing, advising, assessing, counselling, enabling, advocating and feeding back. Courses need to have not only the best possible curriculum for adults, but also appropriate facilities including use of a creche and disabled access. But if the students do not know these courses exist, they will remain underused and consequently underfunded. It is an issue that institutions cannot afford to ignore.

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LECOLE D’HUMANITE: A WAY OF BEING WHOLE AND TEACHING WHOLENESS (THE TRIANGLE IN THE CIRCLE)

Sarah Hudspith

Abstract
The author explains the principles which inform practice at the Ecole d’Humanité in Hasliberg-Goldern in Switzerland. These principles include discussion to promote good relations between members of the school, and between the school and its environment. She explains how this works in specific instances, and how practice facilitates the growth of individuals.

Introduction

Stuck in a sordid hotel in Kabul in 1976 I decided that I no longer wanted to travel the world in search of wonders, I wanted then nothing more than to put my roots down somewhere and work with people I admired and liked on an enterprise that I fully believed in. The only place I knew was the Ecole d’Humanité in Hasliberg-Goldern, in Switzerland, and so we returned at last from the East and settled down as ‘Ecolianers’. And I am still in this place and rejoice still in my living, learning, giving here.

A Typical Family Evening

To give you some understanding of the energy I experience, and the title of this article, let me paint for you some verbal pictures. It is Wednesday evening, 7.30. Our Ecole family, consisting of ten students aged fifteen to twenty, from Japan, India, America, Sweden, Switzerland and the Philippines, boys and girls and Du, from Vietnam, a student who works as a helper doing household chores for a year, our two children, aged six and eight years respectively and my husband and I, sit down to family evening together. We have lived together, eaten meals together, shared birthdays, hikes, play-times and hard times and now it is November, the middle of our long Autumn term. Three of the students were new to our family in September and are not used to living in a community and all of us really need to have the opportunity to air our feelings about each other so that we can live the next five weeks till Christmas with each other, with understanding. Our theme for the evening is "How do I feel

living with you in my Ecole family? What has been good, what could be different?" We begin by making two circles, one inside the other. The people in the outer circle move to the right after having had 5-8 minutes' conversation with someone in the inner circle. Seven conversations would simultaneously take place seven times, so that half the family had spoken with each other. Then we spread into one big circle and continue the discussion with everyone, giving us then the opportunity to speak to everyone or to hear from everyone.

Theme Centred Interaction: The Triangle in the Circle

When I first came to the Ecole I found it very difficult to say exactly how I felt about living with someone else, what I appreciated but also what I disliked in our co-existence. However as the years have gone by, it is now much easier to find out what I am feeling, and to express it in a constructive way. Of course the children - young adults I should call them rather - experience the same problems as I did. It is not something we practise in Western society and for the Japanese and Indians it is something very alien, to open up the private world of one's own inner life. However, nobody is forced to say anything until they feel ready and, as they see again and again the healing process that ensues when conflicts are opened up in a warm and supportive atmosphere and the strength it gives to receive positive feedback, people slowly begin to contribute vital ingredients to this important talk. If it has been good then it means that we have found a way of creating a balance between the 'I', the 'We' and the 'It', in the 'globe' - the three points of the triangle in the circle. This balance is the main principle of Ruth Cohn's teaching, theme centred interaction (or TCI). The 'I' is the individual in the group who has found a way of personally connecting, the 'We' is the group, which has become more conscious of itself, in the process of the discussion, the 'It' is the theme stated previously and the 'globe' could be any factors which must influence the

"They see again and again the healing process that ensues when conflicts are opened up in a warm and supportive atmosphere"

group from the world outside. In this situation it could be the difficulty that a fifteen year old boy from the city of Zurich has in understanding the Brahmin girl from Udipi, South India:

"Why doesn't she take the plates out of the dining room after meals?"

"Can't she see it has to be done?"

"Why doesn't she ask me directly for the water, instead of always addressing the teacher?"

"Why is she so very different from me?"

This lack of understanding between two cultures is our global problem. It is good for us to deal with it in a small forum where the participants carry some responsibility for their actions and where we consciously and continuously work on an attitude of tolerance and understanding.

The School and Its Concerns

Let us move away from our family unit, down the steps from our house to the main part of the school. During the summer months the trees curtain greenly our view across the valley to the Wetterhorn group of massive mountains, whose magnificence dominate our daily life during the six months of stark winter outlines and snow. We can go into Max Cassierer Haus, named after the father of the founder, Edith Geheeb-Cassierer with her husband, Paulus Geheeb. There in the hall information about all the academic courses is hanging. The students can choose their morning courses, which usually remain steady throughout the period of a term and happen in the same daily rhythm. For example a student who had bad experiences with German in a previous school, might decide to drop German initially and concentrate on the sciences which she loves. She might choose then, for her three morning courses, Maths, Biology and Beginners' English. However the students know that if they want to leave the school with some sort of recognised certificate, they will have to have studied a prescribed number of hours in all subjects. They are simply free to choose when they want to take these courses. In these morning classes there lies also

the possibility of creating energy from the right balance of the triangle in the circle. Not all Ecole teachers like to use the principles of TCI in their classroom, but many of us work in this direction. Come into the Judoroom and see how it can work in an English class.

The class, twelve students aged eleven to seventeen, have been together for three weeks and have learned initial greetings and descriptions. I do not work from a text book, as it can never cover the particular needs of our varied groups. The theme today is 'Where I live and what I like and don't like about it'. I have brought a big bright picture from a Helvetia calendar showing a Nepalese girl walking through the yellow field of flowers in front of her mud brick house. Pointing to various items of my picture, I tell the class about my home and its surroundings and how I feel about it. I keep everything very simple so that everyone can understand through the picture and my acting. After repeating orally, we work in small groups, in pairs or alone on various drills, until the students are confident of being able themselves to say the words and the structures. Then

everyone must draw their home and its surroundings and describe it in the way they have learned from the first model. In telling about their home and the way they feel about it, this of course brings the 'I' into the arena, the 'we' is established

by the sharing of these autobiographical details and the theme, the reason the group is together, the learning and practising of the English language is there all the time. Increasingly I have realised how important it is on every level of my teaching to include the globe, to keep the triangle in balance with the large circle of the world around us. In this instance our globe was touched with our attention directed towards the Nepalese girl and her home. We would later develop the theme by choosing examples of homes in our culture that we found particularly dangerous for various reasons, or homes that attracted us and together make a big collage and poems about our vision of the best sort of home. Many staff members are increasingly putting global

awareness as a priority in their teaching and so we offer courses like 'World Conservation Strategy', 'Emancipation', 'World Religions', 'The Lives of Refugees', and in the language courses we often include a theme that brings the globe into balance with the triangle. For example this term's twelfth standard English literature and language course has as its theme 'Intercultural Experiences'.

Theme Centred Interaction in Staff Meetings

Discussing these important topics only in the classroom is of course not enough, we especially need the possibility of discussing them in our staff meetings. So we have arranged for the staff to meet once a month to talk about a theme that we would not have time to really tackle in our daily and weekly more organisational meetings. This is another forum where TCI can play a valuable role. Recently the theme 'Coeducation - how do we deal with it here, what do we want to support and what to avoid?', became yet again vital for us to work on together. The theme so formulated gave everyone the possibility of

"We broke up into small groups of four people, everyone looking for their own group where they would feel comfortable"

saying something if they wanted, however the structure of simply sitting in our staff group of thirty five people and voicing our opinions and doubts on this theme for one and half hours, would not allow everyone to speak. The

young, the timid, the as yet not particularly confident German speakers would say little and the conversation would be dominated by confident men, as usual. So we broke up into small groups of four people, everyone looking for their own group where they would feel comfortable but where there was also a balance of sexes, ages and experience among the staff. In different rooms then for three quarters of an hour we talked about ourselves and our work with the children. To give an idea of some of the situations we face in this area. Let me describe two.

In the school family, it so quickly, so easily happens, that the girls take over the role of caring - whenever we make a meal together, or plan a

birthday festivity - it is the female energy which takes the responsibility and the boys who consume. I remember so many talks with adolescent boys in our family, whom over the years of our living together, I had come to appreciate in many ways. But I was just not able to make clear that there has to be a give and take in our family group for it to be able to survive and the giving is their responsibility too. This is a long, hard process, this learning to give on the part of the boys and the learning to take on the part of the girls. The classroom is another place where boys and girls can grow together and where I experience certain tendencies in boys and girls that do not lead to equal participation.

Frequently in courses we have a class discussion. The girls usually have little to say or even contribute complete silence, since they "don't know, what to say". The boys, on the other hand, have opinions, informed or not and express them vociferously, so the oral exchange rests in the male area and the girls sit passively and listen. This situation happens too in our staff conferences and then I find myself "not knowing" what I think. I have realised that I need to prepare myself, sort out my feelings and thoughts about a subject, so that I am ready to voice my opinion.

Recently a male teacher told about his difficulties in belonging to a groups with no theme; it is through the theme that he finds his path to connecting with other people and when there is no declared theme, then he is not sure how to relate to his fellows. Several other men in the group then said how they could identify with him, they too had this difficulty. I realised that it was not exactly so for me. The unexpressed theme underlying many of my social contacts is "How am I, how are you, how can we learn from/support each other?". This theme among many women is sufficient to facilitate deep and meaningful contacts. Our women's group in the Ecole flows through laughter and tears with the above as its main theme and provides enormous stimulation and

help to many women here. But, on the other hand, I need to make a real effort to become political, develop a clear opinion on a theme, for example 'Computers: how do we want to use them in our school?'. Being able to find my opinion in our staff conferences and become an active member of our discussions is something I must work on.

This is the meat of our small group talks then. Although it is lively we stop after the three quarters of an hour period and sit together again in a circle, all thirty five of us. It is generally quite difficult for the big group to feel comfortable immediately, as the trust and warmth was with the small group. However, as we relate ideas and feelings where we were

"The problem is related to the world we live in, where we feel there is this huge dangerous tendency to consume in every way and not enough creativity and independent initiative"

'Hangen geblieben' as they say so well in German (literally 'stayed hanging') the dynamics of the bigger group roll into life, and the I, We and It can be felt again, the GLOBE touching us all the time through the cultures of our students and the way we live out the onus and the joy

of our woman and manhood.

Listening to music is only allowed in our school within certain limits. This is an example of our principle to consume less and create more. Tape recorders and walkmans are therefore not allowed. However, learning to listen to music is an important aspect of our modern world, learning to listen discriminately as far as what we listen to and the time we spend on it, is something we want to encourage. But how? How can we learn this difficult skill? The problem is brought to the 'Schulgemeinde', the assembly every Friday afternoon after the general cleaning at 4 o'clock. The problem is related to the world we live in, where we feel there is this huge dangerous tendency to consume in every way and not enough creativity and independent initiative. So, in this case, that is our 'globe'. We take the step, then, to limit the consuming of music, but we still feel that some listening is vital. Our theme becomes "How can we listen to music in a healthy way?". And so, as in all democratic institutions, an 'I' and a 'We'

are established respectively with everyone having the right to voice his/her opinion and then from the communal listening to each other, coming to a communal agreement. In this way, the triangle in the circle is once again formed within the whole school community. This particular theme is not easy for us to settle amicably. Both students and teachers have very different feelings about listening to music and even though we might decide on a solution, each Ecole family then interprets it differently and once again we are faced with our principles being lived out in various ways. We had decided six months ago in the school assembly that everyone could listen to their music during the hour 7.15 to 8.15, after supper within their family circle. The Ecole would provide a tape recorder for each family, so nobody needed to bring any machine from home. This means that the students then have to decide together, if more than one wants to listen, whose music they will take and in this way practise the art of compromise. However, some families felt the hour of listening actually could take place at any time when a student felt it was right for him or her and they were free from school in the afternoons. These families were particularly the smaller ones that do not live in the centre of the Ecole area, so their children are not always at

home between 7.15 and 8.15. We were unable to decide what to do last time we discussed this. Our problem lay in the area of to what extent we as a community can allow certain exceptions. This term we must find a solution to our differences through discussion in the school meeting.

Conclusion

Schumacher said at the end of his book ‘Guide for the Perplexed’: "grappling with the help of slender knowledge is the real stuff of life". He did not mean by "slender knowledge" this balance between the triangle in the circle, but nevertheless the spirit of this statement well describes my life here in the Ecole. I feel we are indeed grappling with something vital, an ideal, which can offer us no clear cut solution to our problems, but which leads us to a finer, greater form of existence.

Sarah Hudspith has been a teacher of English, Religion, Middle East and Asian Culture, Folk Dancing, Lino Cuts, Theatre and Beginners’ Alternative Technology for the last twelve years in the Ecole d’Humanité.

MUSLIM NEEDS WON’T DISAPPEAR

Marie Parker-Jenkins

Abstract
Muslim discontent in Britain over social policy issues has become more widespread of late, and it is significant that the education system has not escaped criticism. This article addresses the difficulty of providing adequately for Muslim pupils in the maintained sector, and the call for separate, publicly funded schooling. Attempts to modify aspects of education are highlighted, as well as the movement towards scrutinizing the whole curriculum to ensure it reflects cultural

diversity. Finally, the extent to which the common school curriculum is able to accommodate all students is considered in light of statutory requirements imposed by the National Curriculum.

Introduction

Muslims comprise the largest religious minority in Britain today, second after Roman Catholics and Anglicans. Statistically, they number almost one and a half million originating

mostly from Pakistan, Bangladesh, India, and the Middle East. Whilst they are multi-racial, multi-cultural and multi-lingual, they are united by the religious dimension of their lives. Islam is an all-embracing code of life in which no human law is superior to divine law. A powerful revival of Islamic fundamentalism of late has deeply affected the thinking of Muslims who form minority groups in the "unsympathetic" West. Muslim communities are perceived by some as cores of resistance in liberal democracies, fighting against the tide of secularisation and progress. Beneath this rather superficial description lie major issues concerning social cohesion, cultural diversity, and the extent of minority rights in a democracy.

The education system has not escaped criticism from many Muslims who see an incompatibility between values taught at home and those at school. In this instance debate over the role of education revolves around two fundamental issues: the encouragement of rational autonomy in the child; and the role of religion. For Muslims the curriculum, both explicit and hidden, should reflect an Islamic orientation. They question the neutrality in the presentation of religion by state schools and, most importantly, for Muslims the assumption of God's existence cannot be divorced from the curriculum. During the last decade there have been increasing calls for the establishment of separate Muslim schools along the lines of voluntary aided status presently afforded Catholic, Anglican and Jewish communities. Areas around the country which are densely populated by Muslims provide a variety of supplementary schools or Mosque schools for teaching the Koran in the evenings or weekends. These schools alone are unable to preserve the Muslim identity as they are staffed by teachers with little or no formal training, and often housed in cramped facilities. It is estimated that approximately 90 per cent of Muslim children between the ages of 5 and 12 attend such schools. Communication with their teachers may be hampered by the fact that for

many of these children English is the mother-tongue rather than, for example, Urdu or Gujarati.

Separate but Equal Educational Provision?

The ideal environment to promote the Muslim identity and faith is believed by some to be within a separate school system. Muslims maintain that these schools are not intended to disunite society but to preserve their individual identity. They want separate but equal educational programmes for the transmission of cultural beliefs existing alongside a more general syllabus. The voluntary-aided Muslim school would be permeated by Islamic studies supporting their "unshakeable faith". Such schools would reflect concern about the decline in moral standards and religious adherence in

"Muslim communities are perceived by some as cores of resistance in liberal democracies, fighting against the tide of secularisation and progress"

contemporary Britain. Muslim children, it is argued, would be better British citizens as a result of such schools, providing a moral compass, and instilling a new sense of morality into society. They feel that there is misunderstanding on the part of local education authorities

and the government, who have the wrong perception of Muslim school needs and who do not appreciate the importance of Islam in their lives.

Accommodating Muslim Needs

Presently, there are approximately 15 independent Muslim schools in Britain which serve the needs of children whose parents are financially able and willing to pay. In the meantime, many Muslim children are caught in a situation of "cultural clash": their families feel the whole ethos of British state schools and educational policy is inconsistent with their way of life. Since voluntary-aided Muslim schools are unlikely to be established in the foreseeable future, there remains a basic problem: Muslim parents will aspire to keep their children faithful in the face of perceived Western materialism and permissiveness. Separate Muslim schools may well be an unfulfilled aspiration on the part of

Muslim parents. Accordingly, those who remain within the state school system may choose to have their needs advocated by more assertive parents, and community leaders. Sensitive approaches to aspects of schooling such as dietary needs, school uniform, swimming lessons and religious instruction have already been addressed in many schools. The next stage is reassessment and updating of curriculum materials in order to foster a multicultural perspective within the discrete subject areas, particularly at secondary level, and to boost the morale and identity of Muslim children. This would involve selection of curricula which reflect cultural heritage rather than the perceived tokenism of festival celebration grafted on to an ethnocentric syllabus. There is also a call for existing textbooks to be scrutinized for cultural bias and, where appropriate, to be Islamicised to reflect the Muslim ethos. Islamic studies taught in English by Muslim teachers who are trained and employed within the government school system, is another possibility.

The Extent of Cultural Diversity

Various issues emerge from this analysis of the Muslim community with profound implications for educationalists. The significance of Islam and the importance of the Koran in education necessitate specific responsibilities of Muslim parents, and accordingly, certain rights and duties of their children. Cultural diversity in Western societies has provided ample opportunity for teaching to reflect different perspectives on the family, the home and the place of religion. Yet for many Muslims, this approach appears as a **competing** perspective which challenges and undermines their own identity. British and European law contain provision for the education of children according to parental wishes. The European Convention on Human Rights, to which Britain is a party, requires that the state shall respect the right of parents to ensure education and teaching in conformity with their own religious and

philosophical convictions. Presumably this requirement could have application to the broad educational needs arising from the Islamic faith. Muslims may be inclined to litigate in Strasbourg in the future, and to protest about morally unacceptable curricula, if they fail to find redress through domestic channels.

To what extent can, and should, education reflect cultural differences in society, and is it still possible to provide a common core curriculum which is acceptable to all children? Sensitivity to Muslim needs, updating of the curriculum and critical inspection of teaching materials will continue to be at the forefront of

*"Many Muslim children
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'cultural clash'"*

this debate. Whilst there are no easy solutions to the questions raised, clearly the problem of satisfying Muslim educational needs will not go away. Growing political

consciousness among Muslims in Britain may increasingly be felt by the school system as criticism of existing provision becomes more vocal. The dilemma remains that educationalist must seek to satisfy these needs within the statutory requirements of the National Curriculum, and in the presence of competing group demands. Salman Rushdie's book "Satanic Verses" not only provoked moral outrage amongst Muslims about blasphemy, but allowed old grievances to surface in political agendas across the country. Needs are now being expressed as demands and to ignore them is to delay inevitable confrontation.

Dr Parker-Jenkins lectures in curriculum studies, law and administration in the School of Education, Univ of Nottingham, specialising in issues of equality, race and gender. She has held a variety of teaching and administrative positions in Britain, Bermuda and Canada. More recently, she has been called upon to speak on the Salman Rushdie case and is presently conducting on-going research into Muslim educational needs.

Round the World WEF Section News

Rosemary Crommelin

Headquarters

We look forward to welcoming WEF members, particularly those from overseas, to the 35th WEF International Conference. On this occasion, however there are three host-organisations: WEF has shared with the Education for Capability Project at the RSA, and with the School for Independent Study at the Polytechnic of East London, in planning and organising the Conference, and we now join in greeting participants.

In addition to discussing Conference arrangement, the Guiding Committee has also been concerned recently with specific items which will be on the agenda at the meeting of the General Assembly. One of these is the election of a new President - about which Sections have been consulted - another is the paper tabled by WEF's new Chairman, Professor John Stephenson, at the February meeting and sent to all sections. In it he stresses the need for looking ahead to the future, deciding what should be the priorities of the Fellowship, and finding ways in which the Guiding Committee can support the Sections. He reminds us that within the structure of WEF it

is largely up to the Sections to decide their own programmes, and the function of the Guiding Committee is "to complement, support, co-ordinate and stimulate the activities of its member Sections." Bearing in mind that the quality of education in schools, colleges and society as a whole is one of the main concerns of WEF, we must consider how best the Fellowship can support and improve the various aspects of education.

Other concerns should be to increase membership in existing Sections and to stimulate WEF Sections in new areas such as Eastern Europe, Africa, South America and Asia. To this end a general promotion campaign might be considered to include, for example, the preparation of stimulating material available in several languages, based on WEF's aims; the election of Honorary Fellows - not necessarily WEF members - nominated by Sections, with publicity for annual presentations; and the publication of a handbook of recognised examples of WEF Principles in Action, drawn from all Sections. These and other ideas from Sections will be considered during the Conference.

Unesco

The United Nations Association in the United Kingdom recently asked NGOs to press for the UK to re-join Unesco. Sections will know that Dr Rex Andrews, for many years a member of the Guiding Committee and now living in France, has represented WEF at Unesco on several occasions. He has been impressed by the improvements made by the new Director-General, Dr F. Mayor, in concentrating the organisation's resources by adopting a more limited programme, the emphasis being quality, with follow-up procedures, rather than on a quantity of relatively small projects. There is, too, very much more consultation both at national government level and in the greater involvement of NGOs. He felt that the November 1989 General Conference was an indication that improvements have already been made and that they will lead to a basic reform of the organisation.

In view of this report we wrote to the Foreign Secretary outlining these improvements and pressing for the UK to re-join Unesco. The Foreign Office reply confirms that it is studying the outcome of the

General Conference very carefully and will assess what progress had been made. Meantime, in spite of withdrawal, the United Kingdom continues to participate in and contribute to several Unesco-sponsored programmes.

Australia

At the meeting of the Australian council in January the Victoria Executive formally handed over to the new Queensland Executive. Professor Jack Campbell is the new President, Mr Myles Clacherty the Secretary, Dr Laurie Miller Treasurer, and the council Members are Brian McKeering, Jennifer Riggs and J.Vaughan. Dr. Elizabeth Campbell takes over as Editor of New Horizons.

The Victoria Section Secretary, Arthur Sandell, spoke on behalf of all Australian Sections to thank Malcolm Skilbeck and Helen Connell for their outstanding service to WEF as President and Secretary of the Australian Council during the past four years.

Reports were presented by each Section. Excellent programmes in Queensland and in South Australia had been well supported; in South Australia membership has doubled since the very successful International Conference of 1988; in New South Wales although formal membership is not strong, the Summer School - the 38th -

was again a great success; scholarship awards by the Tasmania and South Australia Sections have supported travel costs for selected candidates to the London Conference. At the time of writing there are 26 registrations from Australia, twelve (including three travel scholarships) are from South Australia where Sr Pat Feehan has organised a tour which takes in a visit to Bombay en route for the UK, and then to Nottingham University for Professor Philip Gammage's course prior to the Conference.

Tasmania reports an increase in membership which they think is probably due to the strong social side at Section meetings which serves to cement friendships, to keeping subscriptions as low as possible, also to their programme of activities which has included subjects of high interest - without being too highbrow - and those dealing with current educational trends. In keeping with their policy of raising the WEF profile in the local Tasmania community, they have awarded a travel scholarship to an Infant-School Mistress to enable her to attend the Nottingham course and the London conference. On her return she will report to the Section and will write about the conference in New Horizons.

Finally, a quote from Myles Clacherty's report as President of the Queensland Section during 1989: "1990 is the

International Year of Literacy. It is the year in which WEF focuses internationally on learner managed learning. More and more (even among industry trainers) I hear the words 'learner,' 'accessing learning,' and 'learning facilitation' as opposed to 'student,' 'pupil', 'educational delivery,' and 'teaching.' Among these words and concepts could well be the beginnings of the 1990 programme."

Nepal

Last year the Nepal Section celebrated its 5th Anniversary with a meeting in the American Cultural Centre in Kathmandu. Mr Radha Krishna Joshi chaired the meeting, and the chief guest was the Vice-Chancellor of the Royal Nepal Academy of Science and Technology, the Honourable Dr Ratna Shamsheer Jung Bahadur Rana. He spoke on "Environmental Education" and stressed the need for the development of environmental awareness in children in Nepal. WEF Secretary, Mr Dhruba Bahadur Shrestha, welcomed the guests and presented the annual WEF report, detailing the different activities of the Nepal Section. The Function was attended by university lecturers, professors, school headmasters, government officials, educationists and WEF members. Refreshments and a film-show followed the lecture.

United States

New office-holders have been announced in the US Section: President is now Dr Mildred Hapt, Professor of Education, College of New Rochelle, NY; General Secretary and editor of the newsletter (to be published twice yearly) is Dr Frank Stone, Professor of International Education at the University of Connecticut; Treasurer is Mr George R. Tenney. President of the Connecticut Chapter is Mrs Mary Phelps, teacher of English at Windham High School, Willimantic, CT; Dr Michael Cioffi, Principal of Public School 56, The Bronx, is President of the New York

Chapter. Dr Marion Brown continues as official WEF liaison with the United Nations, and with the WEF Guiding Committee, and as US Associate Editor of *New Era in Education*.

We were delighted to receive from Dr Frank Stone a proposal to host the 36th WEF International Conference in the Greater Hartford area, Connecticut, in August, tentatively the 17th to 20th, 1992. Sponsors would be the WEF Connecticut Chapter, WEF US Section, and the Isaac N Thut World Education Center, University of Connecticut. Mrs Phelps and Dr Stone would chair the conference; Dr Mildred Hapt

would be the Honorary Chairperson. The proposed topic is "Education for a Changing World" with a specific focus for each day, among which may be Intercultural/International Competence, Environment Education, Human Rights Education, and Learning the Ways of Peace. Conference organising committees have been appointed, and there are proposals for pre- and post-conference activities. Professor Vernon Phelps, who is representing the US Section and the Connecticut Chapter, will put this invitation formally to the General Assembly at its meeting in London.

TRAINING REVISITED: A New Zealand Perspective on the Current British Educational Scene

D'Reen Struthers

Some eighteen years ago I began my training as a teacher at Hamilton Teachers' College, New Zealand. Now, in initial teacher education, I find myself reflecting on those college days. It is not however, the social life of a student in those days that I wish to contemplate.

Now, living in times of rapid educational change in Britain, we are surely all called upon to reflect and analyse the fundamental basis of our approach to the 'learning/teaching process'. Without clarity at this level, the maze of new publications from the DES and the subsequent legislative requirement could be the light by which we all get blinded. I say light, because no matter how much we protest at these new developments, or the ideology behind central

government's rationale for their implementation or the limitations of funding at present, many positive and new opportunities are on offer.

What was it about the initial teacher training I received that has influenced my thinking today? First, let me put those years in a general context. By then, New Zealand's white and European-influenced history was about 150 years old. Influenced but not tied to the centuries of tradition from Britain in particular, this young country was continually exploring the educational developments around the world - receptive to new ideas, open to change and new ways of thinking. Little wonder that the educational debates and ideas prevalent from the late 1950's onwards were considered, applied

and contributed to the education I myself experienced as a pupil and later in my initial training. 'Progressive education' as it became broadly known was for many the process by which the national syllabus in New Zealand was implemented.

The British context some thirty years ago was very different I believe. From my work in British schools and initial training over the past 12 years, I am left wondering to what degree 'progressive education' was considered seriously across the country. In discussions, terms such as "skills", "behaviour", "values", "aims" all appear to be narrowly defined. The term "child-centred" seems to have diverted efforts away from incremental, sequenced learning and notions of intrinsic motivation to imply a form of organisation in which the acquisition of knowledge is based around topic centred activities, selected on the basis of Piagetian goal posts.

Times seem to be changing. Not dismissing the present Government's economic thrust of "value for money", there is perhaps a sound and justifiable rationale for the arrival of a National Curriculum in Britain. In a rapidly changing technological world, where information is also increasing have today's pupils (or teachers for that market) been encouraged to think in creative and divergent ways or to go beyond mere memory recall?

At the risk of making even further generalised assumptions, the training of teachers must surely be a starting point for ensuring that the imposed National Curriculum in Britain is for our future generations, an educationally worthwhile tool. While it is prescriptive in terms of what is to be covered, the teaching/learning process has not been so described. The National Curriculum however is still seen by many as an imposed structure.

The tyranny of structurelessness

Is this what we now find so difficult to extricate ourselves from -to be free to embrace the structured nature of the new Curriculum with its

demand of assessment and accountability? It would be suicide to imply that all teacher simply meandered through the school year with their band of youngsters, looking in as many shop windows as they could find and setting test papers for pupils to record what they could remember. Some of course only visit a few shops, where, upon entering, the pupils are encouraged to discover, play, experience and record their individualised findings - interspersed with visits to museums, libraries, the river etc. where a possible topic link can be found. Perhaps, to continue this analogy further, some children find the kind of shop visit of interest, whereas others are not impressed with the facade while for still others, what is happening in the street outside is more captivating.

Recently I heard a teacher describing how she had "done" the topic 'water' for four weeks. Her 'Topic Web' (no doubt an idea gained during initial training) spun out to include songs on water, poems on water, scientific experiments

on water, mathematical measurements, the historical uses of water, the geographical implication of the location of water sources, with diversions into pollution of the water, staining into art work etc. Now "doing" Colour, I asked how the

activities she was proposing in her new Topic Web followed on from those the children had been doing in the previous four weeks.

Possibly at this moment I was 'speaking in tongues' for the blank face and silence indicated that this teacher did not understand what I was saying. I tried again, asking whether the children would be going on to develop and expand the skills and understanding they had gained during the 'Water' topic. This question gained the reply... "Well they will writing more poems and stories, doing more science experiments...".

Little wonder then that often the stories written by 4th year Juniors actually bear a resemblance to stories written 2 years before. This does not seem in any way compatible with the expectations I had been trained with. Indeed,

"The term "child-centred" seems to have diverted efforts away from incremental, sequenced learning and notions of intrinsic motivation"

while topic webs are not unfamiliar to me, the apparent lack of structural thinking behind them, or the clear underpinning of objectives, or the awareness of questioning strategies, or the evolving sequence of skill development and understanding has prompted me to consider how and where my own thinking about such structures has evolved.

What of Thinking; Ways of Knowing

Many writers have deliberated these processes but it was Jerome Bruner who first aroused my curiosity when I read "The Process of Education" (1960) and then "On Knowing: Essays for the Left Hand" (1962). The latter book was for the "left hand" because it was concerned with the intuitive and creative aspects of knowing which complement the more orderly, rational, and methodological skill of the "right hand". It dealt with knowing through art and poetry, through myth and humankind's image of ourselves.

During my training, certainly there were other writers. However when asked to analyse the differences between Piaget's approach and theory and that of Bruner, and their possible implications for a classroom setting, I was then reading about the role language played in a child's growth process. But interested in music education, Vygotsky's "The Psychology of Art" (1971) led me to ponder on the way in which the impact of culture is often dismissed by psychologists. Interestingly the most critical difference in the work of Piaget and Bruner concerned the power attributed to agents of culture in shaping structure in the course of intellectual development. Compared to Bruner's account, Piaget's description of the course of development seems relatively fixed and prefigured. Not that Piaget's theory was a wholly hereditary account. His central concept of accommodation certainly implied that environment does bring about changes in cognitive structure. Further, the idea that teaching should start "where the learner is"

which has been so crucial to Bruner's views on Education, is implicit in Piaget's work. Bruner on the other hand dealt with the role language plays in cognitive development. Nonetheless, in most of his work, Piaget shows little concern with the pedagogical means of aiding intellectual development, which he is known to have called "the American Question".

Could this explain why the work of Piaget seems to be so popular in many Higher Education Institutions in Britain? A whole term I recall, was devoted to questioning techniques, following on from a thorough examination of Bloom's Taxonomy of Objectives, (1956), and explicitly linked with the writings of Taba (1962) and Tyler (1950) on curriculum development, design and planning - not to mention a study of Bruner's "Spiral Curriculum".

It was by looking at various curriculum development models with the ideas generated from the study of how writers perceived learning to occur, that the role of questioning became more obvious. Organising and structuring the learning situation was thus illuminated by the effect of going beyond mere memory recall and comprehension. Moreover, being able to clarify why one was doing something - the aims and objectives - all related back to the philosophical discussions about schooling, society and the individual.

I would therefore suggest that my training college days helped me understand far more than just how to organise, facilitate and evaluate learning. They provided me with a hook on which to hang my open approaches to new situations; in other words, a clarity about the way I myself was achieving and applying; analysing and synthesising and indeed evaluating new encounters - both in the cognitive and the affective domain.

"The first object of any act of learning, over and beyond the pleasure it may give, is that it should serve us in the future. Learning should not only take us somewhere; it should allow us

"Piaget shows little concern with the pedagogical means of aiding intellectual development, which he is known to have called 'the American Question'"

later to go further more easily." Bruner,J.(1969)p.17

Thoughts for Today

Here in Britain the "National Curriculum" appears to have become an incredible thorn at almost every level of education. Topic-webs are now being reconstructed to highlight the specific **attainment levels** they satisfy. Thus the new demands are being assimilated into the old procedures, the old being rationalised and explained with the new. Is this the most satisfactory way of "solving the problem" however?

Could the old and new be synthesised in a way that produced something different? What experiences, understandings and skills are needed to achieve a given attainment target? Is there a way of sequencing these experiences to enable the learner actually to achieve the required level? If a topic-web must be adhered to, it can be placed over the ordered framework which suggests the activities. The teacher's task is then one of matching the learner to the appropriate level in the sequence.

Armstrong (1989) implies that the teaching profession has much to offer and clearly resents the way the present process adopted by the Government is actively excluding them.

"As far as teachers are concerned it is all too clear, despite the glib asides, that they are to be allocated no significant role in determining, revising or challenging the knowledge which they are required to teach."

That he goes on to elaborate the limitations of the Government's documentation of the National Curriculum is neither surprising nor unjustified. Of course there are frustrations with a curriculum imposed from above, with little consultation or educational forethought. Nevertheless, the way in which the teaching profession responds to the challenge will, I believe, be a measure of the kind of training and levels of thinking that have prevailed in Britain

over the past thirty years. A reasoned case for more resources to ensure qualitative advances for the education of children might be a more constructive platform than to go on the defensive.

There are already processes, structures, philosophies and psychological approaches which might help. Certainly, I would posit encounters within my own training that suggest there is potentially a very exciting time ahead to synthesise educational ideas from those "progressive days" and apply them to the emerging British context in a structure, more thorough and open way.

For Example

Is there anything to be lost by revisiting some of the ideas the writers quoted above have documented? Is there time, in our rapidly changing world, to be so precious about "the British system", to the exclusion of many lessons already learnt in other countries? Are we as educators, in the face of this upheaval, going to dig our heels in, and cling to remnants of a sinking ship?

What might be the result of imagining the National Curriculum with it's created jargon as a spiral? Would we discover that it is indeed the profession's knowledge (or lack of it) of the ways children learn that could enable what has been prescribed, to be seen merely as a "syllabus framework"? What is there to be learnt

about questioning techniques and "higher order" levels of thinking? Have we as a profession got the insight and "ways of seeing" to be able to decode the documentation into sound educational practice?

Indeed does the place of philosophy again in our initial training course seem apparent? Are we owners of outmoded, or culturally biased theories which in themselves need to be revisited and reconsidered? Do higher educational institutions themselves emulate sound pedagogy, making the links and the connections

"A reasoned case for more resources to ensure qualitative advances for the education of children might be a more constructive platform than to go on the defensive"

with other disciplines explicit? Perhaps our Training College lecturers need more than just recent and relevant teaching experience?

What if we try to decode the assessment of student teachers? Do we seek a consensus about the "good enough teacher" at base level? Perhaps from the list we might draw up, a thought could be given to what the most logical way would be to sequence experiences so that by the end of the period of training all students had covered the list. On a four year course, this arranged and sequenced list would then be divided into quarters. At the end of each year what to look for and assess would be apparent:

year 1 = a year 3 = a+b+c

year 2 = a+b year 4 = a+b+c+d

Possibly the spiral approach might even have a place in structuring a Bachelor of Education course. Certainly, in my experience, facilitating experiences where it is no longer satisfactory to merely "play the game" to graduate would go a long way to ensure that our future teachers are themselves capable of intuitive and analytical thinking.

To Conclude

The act of revisiting in no way suggests the act of repetition. Bruner certainly did not imply this. For him "revisiting" was a way of describing the journey back through our schema looking for previous knowledge to which a new situation or piece of information might bear a resemblance. I have attempted to take you with me as I have wandered through my corridors of experience where I have discovered that perhaps my own initial training may still shed some light on the educational challenge facing Britain today. Simply, perhaps the profession itself needs to engage in an "act of learning" at present.

"Learning a subject seems to involve three almost simultaneous processes. First there is the acquisition of new information - often information that runs counter to or is a replacement for what the person has previously known implicitly or explicitly. At the very least it is a refinement of previous knowledge... The second aspect of learning may be called transformation - the process of manipulating knowledge to make it fit new tasks. We learn to

unmask or analyse information, to order it in a way that permits extrapolation or interpolation or conversion into another form. Transformation comprises the ways we deal with information in order to go beyond it. A third aspect of learning is evaluation, checking whether the way we have manipulated information is adequate to the task". Bruner, J. (1973) p.421

Revisiting my own initial training influences, re-reading with new understandings those writers - only some of whom I have named in this article - does leave me questioning whether the British system can afford now to remain insular. If the wheel has been invented let's not re-invent a British one for the sake of it. Could I invite you all to revisit the books on your shelves and if they do not include American Progressive Educationalists, perhaps they could?

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EXPORTING IN-SERVICE TEACHER TRAINING TO EASTERN EUROPE FROM MIDDLESEX POLYTECHNIC

Diane Montgomery

October 1988 found me in the warm, dry heat of the city of Plovdiv, courtesy of the Bulgarian Ministry of Education, speaking to two hundred teachers and psychologists at their tenth annual conference about ways of teaching able pupils. The invitation came via Dr Joan Freeman president of ECHA, the European Council for High Ability.

I discovered, predictably, that Bulgarian teachers teach a specified National Curriculum in didactic fashion. There was concern that this method and the curriculum were not capable of stimulating or catering sufficiently well for the more able groups. Thus the conference organiser Levcho Dzrachevsimarin had gathered experts from both Western and Eastern Europe to present their countries' policies and practices or as in my case, research on effective new directions in practice. I found, not surprisingly, that most of them, especially the Russian system, was based upon early competitive selection for specialist schooling and that pupils with learning difficulties were consigned to 'defectology' clinics, units and schools. As I had gone to propose exactly the opposite system, my cognitive-process pedagogy, for the vast majority of able and gifted and to integrate those with learning difficulties into mainstream, it was with some anxiety that I awaited my lecturing session.

I wondered how an authoritarian culture and teachers schooled in such an ethos would respond. I realised that my implicit message could be regarded as a political one for what I was to expound would run counter to the established order. Visions of bugging and arrest floated up and discomforted my mind but there was no tangible evidence of any such surveillance. There was however an interesting reaction by the Bulgarians to any form of exertion of authority by anyone seeking to

obtain some form of service. It was more than a mañana mania.

Restaurants were firmly shut before their scheduled times and shops were closed during opening hours for unspecified times. Our driver bringing us 150 miles down the empty motorway from Sophia across the Thracian plains drove at 100 mph, well above the speed limit, momentarily pulling his safety belt across his chest whenever an army vehicle or outpost loomed. Occasional villages were seen in the distance and the only signs of life were a few 'gipsies' (sic) peasants and three turkey flocks like sheep being moved through the landscape behind their herdsman. Frenzied fabrication of flats were seen round Sophia to house people who had flocked to the city leaving an empty countryside. There was little cultivation and no cattle apparent throughout the drive and just two elderly tractors to be seen near Plovdiv.

On arrival at the five star hotel we were told there were no rooms available. This apparently happens each year and was quite untrue as all the necessary rooms had been booked months previously. Long negotiations with the management were entered into and at 2.30 the rooms were 'released'. Nothing began on time, and new arrangements might suddenly be made. Nevertheless all the programme was fulfilled and the translators were brilliant. They offered *simultaneous* translation from Russian, English and German into English and German and Bulgarian. They were meticulous in their preparation with each speaker and we established a very good rapport. Conference members conversed with each other during lectures, wrote notes on small pieces of squared paper (paper was in very short supply) and drifted in and out of the hall at random for refreshments. No official breaks except for lunch were made.

A great amount of heat was generated by one Bulgarian speaker extolling the virtues of a show school run upon Montessori principles. The anger of the teachers was explained to me as resulting from frustration that only key party workers' children seemed eligible to attend this school whose education was highly rated. I began to feel more comfortable about my presentation, the teachers were after all only demanding equal opportunities for all in education. This was expressly what I wished to communicate to them.

As the day of my presentation loomed more practical problems absorbed me. Reception staff would disappear for an hour or two to some special room with my papers and transparencies only to return to inform me that the photocopier was 'ill'. It was apparently always thus and the most popular theory was that there was never any copying paper. I became concerned about the question-time, for 'yes' in Bulgarian is signified by shaking one's head and 'no' by nodding. Waiters met all requests for information about menus with figure of eight head movements which could mean yes and no or so it seemed. I wondered how one could listen and agree with a questioner and shake one's head. I practised and only became completely confused beginning to lose my grip on the meaning of yes and no. I decided to keep my lecture and my responses strictly in English. Meanwhile the translators went through my transparencies and notes seeking main points and difficult vocabulary which might need attention. Their knowledge of English and our education system was very good. One of them wanted to know how our 'voluntary' schools fitted into the education system and what they were, having heard these mentioned. They explained that it takes longer to express ideas in Bulgarian for in English we have many short words and neat phrases. I must pause occasionally to wait for them and one of the radio receivers was placed on the desk in

front of me so that I could just hear the voice. The translation was simultaneous and as when I was on the receiving end proved to be excellent, enabling me to establish a good rapport with the audience. It was slightly unnerving only when the woman who was translating me was suddenly replaced by the man's voice as she rested from the strain which this continuous form of speech shadowing can create. I made explicit the positive relationship between helping children's minds develop and think freely and the results from research on investigative, problem solving and collaborative learning. I linked notions of equality of opportunity to enabling *all* pupils to have a high standard of education meaning not only their own children but also the children of their low

"I made explicit the positive relationship between helping children's minds develop and think freely and the results from research on investigative, problem solving and collaborative learning"

status groups. These included the disabled and the reviled gipsies, whom the Bulgarians regarded as an inferior race and in relation to whom they seemed to run a form of apartheid. I tried to show that an education which eschews rote learning and develops the capacity to think, imagine and reflect upon what and how one is learning can be the greatest

spur to democratisation and the undermining of systems of indoctrination and authoritarian rule.

The lecture ended, the hall was still full and there was a strong surge of spontaneous applause and a range of interested and keen questioning. Invitations to publish the details of the lecture followed and most interesting of all an invitation to write a monthly problem solving column for children of the world for the Banner of Peace Newspaper edited and run by Ilyana Sherkova in Bulgaria. For twelve months now 'Letters from the boat' (I live on a Thames Barge) have gone out in five languages (Russian, Bulgarian, Spanish, German and English) to over one hundred countries. The final result of my Bulgarian adventure was an invitation to lecture and run a one day workshop on my pedagogical theory and practices in Hungary, July 1989.

The summer school was located in the South of Hungary in Pécs. This time the conference organiser's avowed intent was to try to intervene in teacher education and upgrade the teaching skills of primary teachers who were low in self esteem and held in low regard within the education system. This was much more the type of inservice education which proves to be effective for it not only consists of lectures but also provided experimental learning in the workshops for the teachers. 'We do and we understand'.

Attila Horvath, from the Institute of Psychology in Budapest had invited a number of leading Hungarian educators and philosophers to help develop a new conceptual framework for education and had invited an international group to lecture to and work with the teachers to help them move from lecturing and rote learning styles of imparting information to methods more suitable for young children.

This first summer school and conference in Pécs was to help prepare teachers to cope with what were perceived as imminent changes in education and a freeing up of the curriculum. In May 1989

Russian had ceased to be a compulsory curriculum subject. Attila foresaw the problems which could ensue when the teachers could decide on how and what they would teach when the compulsory regulations governing the curriculum were also lifted. They would not know how best to handle and use this freedom for the benefit of the pupils. Teacher training and University teaching apparently consisted of lecturing at students for long hours each day. Teaching practice involved similar techniques, with children or for children with special needs following closely prescribed didactic routines under the assessor's eye without the necessary regard to individuals.

I gave my lecture on 'New Directions in Special Education in Ordinary Classrooms' outlining what we in England regarded as special needs, how children of different abilities could be taught together in the same class using cognitive-process pedagogy and the nature of

intrinsic rather than extrinsic differentiation. The message was received with some surprise but great enthusiasm. This time the translation, equally good, was sequential. This cuts down the amount one can communicate by about a third and concentrates the mind wonderfully. To move things faster all the key transparencies were translated into Hungarian. We worked late into the night to be ready. The translators this time were Attila, a high school student and a young graduate. Each was impressive in the skilful way they handled their different tasks enabling us to establish a very good rapport with our audiences. Many more than the twenty who had booked wanted to join the cognitive-process workshop.

Preparing for the workshop took considerable time, for my materials had to be translated into Hungarian, but there was a working copying machine and paper! Simple problem solving

materials such as string, card, balloons, glue, and scissor were also available as long as they were ordered in advance. It was also possible to buy all manner of goods in the western style supermarkets and shops - whereas this was

not at all the case in Bulgaria. One food store in Plovdiv sold for example only cans of fish in oil, hand cut lard and milk.

The workshop day began and Attila was interpreting. We began with a non-verbal group problem-solving task. For six hours in a temperature of 90 to 100 degrees Fahrenheit we grappled with cognitive study skill and directed activities related to texts (DARTs), real problem solving and language experience techniques. The day ended with two assessment tasks, one for the teachers to check their understanding and competencies to put what they had learned into practice, and one to assess my work with them, a concept mapping task. Their assessment task was to design a whole book game based upon a set of children's mini story books which I had bought at a Hungarian street book stall. The teachers had to design a board game and set of question cards reflecting as many of the days' problem solving and study skills as possible

"Children of different abilities could be taught together in the same class using cognitive - process pedagogy"

working in collaborative groups. Attila felt that some of the more advanced techniques would be too new and difficult for them. From their responses during the day, their enjoyment and evident involvement I felt more optimistic. With great relief and pleasure we found their day had been a great success. They had all designed a full range of both information, problem solving questions and games.

The formal evaluation post conference reported by the organisers showed that cognitive-process theory and practice had achieved the highest rating from conference members, equalled only by my Canadian colleague James Baker who had run an experiential learning workshop on similar lines. He had concentrated on dialogue about the personal experiences felt and the levels of thought processes involved in analyzing various problem-solving and everyday experiences over a five day period including outings to museums and monuments. They painted and made things, solved problems and worked in collaborative groups matched by learning styles. They had plenty of substance in Pécs to visit. It is a beautiful town restored at the cost of millions of pounds to its former glory full of elegant buildings in sepia, cream, white and blue washes.

Both Jim's and my style of teaching were apparently similar but different from the rest and different from what the teachers expected. We were 'friendly', positive and supportive according to the reports, not autocratic, severe and negative which seemed to be their norm. Several other 'workshops' had for example consisted of five hours of straight lecturing. One of the difficulties which confronted us and our proposed pedagogies was that in Hungarian there was no word for *experiential* learning. The concept was unknown, the nearest word offered was experimental learning, which did not properly reflect what we were trying to communicate.

My point in writing this account of helping with some in-service education in Eastern Europe is to highlight the importance, as I see it, of education as a stabilising force and long term investment. It can of course in different guises be the engine of repression and indoctrination as it still is in many countries. In order for democracy to grow and flourish it is important that governmental changes are paralleled and were possible preceded by the democratisation of education. The lecture method of imparting

"English primary education, once the envy of the world visited by thousands of keen observers seeking to capture its essence for their own system, is in danger"

curriculum information coupled with rote learning of set contents are the methods of totalitarianism. Whilst Attila seeks to foster a new education in Hungary through retraining teachers knowing that little will truly change unless fear is taken out of the curriculum Britain seems

poised to return to these methods. English primary education, once the envy of the world, visited by thousands of keen observers seeking to capture its essence for their own system, is in danger. Threatened by a specific National Curriculum too extensive in detail, too separated into subject knowledge boxes, too ignorant of children's learning needs, policed by local advisers turned inspectors, and overburdened with assessment. It is an administrator-led system of education, designed by no-one with recent relevant experience of teacher training or children's learning. It is a curriculum defined by journalists, bureaucrats and businessmen. Unless it is democratised and more regard paid to the process by which children best learn, our new national curriculum could become an instrument of destruction in the home of democracy. It will take all our teachers' skills and ingenuity in the 1990s to preserve quality in education. Of quantity there is no doubt that there will be copious amounts for those prepared to sit quietly and listen, but what will they learn?

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Profile of an Educationist

Designed, edited & published by
Dr.(Mrs.) Bhanuben K.Vyas,
Principal, The New Era School, Bombay

The history of educational advance is not rooted in theory but in the practice of exceptional schools and the exceptional people who conceived them and built them up. *Profile of an Educationist* is the story of such a school and such a person: The New Era School, Bombay, and Dr.K.C.Vyas. Dr.K.C.Vyas died in 1988 and this book is a well-illustrated celebration of his life and work. It includes a suggested plan for future activities by the World Education Fellowship.

Dr.Vyas did not only carry on a great family tradition - the school was founded in 1930 by his uncle and father, motivated by the philosophy of Mahatma Gandhi and Tagore - but extended earlier work to make the New Era School a shining example of imaginative and humane education in the contemporary world. Dr.(Mrs.) Bhanuben K.Vyas is now continuing the endeavour, supported by a dedicated staff.

The book takes us into valuable detail of how the school shaped its affairs to serve the personal and communal needs of pupils, parents and teachers. A feature that appears clearly in the activities and relationships described is what has been defined as 'the power of gentleness'. Great educators have often been more autocratic than they supposed, driven by the demanding clarity of their own institutions. Not so Dr.K.C.Vyas. His profound influence was not founded on arrogance but on a quiet spiritual perception of

what people and situations needed in order to nourish the potential creativity in both.

The book states: 'A young child is an over-flowing being with the immense reservoirs of energy, ideas and emotions which seek to pour forth from him in a constant stream of activity.' That is the nub of the matter. The stream can be helped along its natural course or blocked and poisoned. The educational systems of the world are taking a long time to learn this fundamental developmental fact. It is, and for long has been, the guiding principle of the New Era School. The result is a radiant vitality pervading the whole. How varied that whole is emerges from this account.

The book contains many tributes from admirers, which themselves light up the importance of the ideals around which Dr.Vyas built his life and work. A particularly pertinent tribute comes from Sujata and Rajni Upadyya in Nairobi: 'The beauty of his character was that he never allowed a person to feel that he was being helped. Goodness came out of him spontaneously.' That echoes everyone's experience of 'Kanti'.

Appropriately one of the longer tributes is paid by Dr.Madhuri Shah, then International President of the World Education Fellowship, and a one-time teacher at the New Era School. But the tribute must make us sad as well as pleased for we have now lost Madhuri Shah also. Where better to find inspiration for continuing the struggle to give the young a proper chance in life than in the magnificent contributions of Kantibhai and Madhuri to that end.

James Hemming

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NEW ERA IN EDUCATION is the termly journal of the **World Education Fellowship (WEF)**. The Fellowship is an international association with sections and representatives in more than twenty countries, which has played a continuing role in promoting the progress of educational ideas and practices in the twentieth century.

NATURE OF THE WEF

Founded in 1921, the World Education Fellowship is voluntary and non-partisan, and enjoys the status of a Unesco non-governmental organisation category B. It is open to educators, members of associated professions, and to all members of the public who have a common interest in education at all levels. The Fellowship meets biennially in international conferences, publishes books and pamphlets, and, through its national sections, participates in workshops, meetings and developmental projects. The Fellowship does not advocate any dogma; each member is free to put the principles indicated below into practice in ways which are best suited to the environment in which he/she is living and working.

PRINCIPLES OF THE WEF

- (a) The primary purpose of education today is to help all of us to grow as self-respecting, sensitive, confident, well-informed, competent and responsible individuals in society and in the world community.
- (b) People develop these qualities when they live in mutually supportive environments where sharing purposes and problems generates friendliness, commitment and cooperation. Schools should aim to be communities of this kind.
- (c) Learners should, as early as possible, take responsibility for the management of their own education in association with and support from others. They should be helped to achieve both local involvement and a global perspective.
- (d) High achievement is best obtained by mobilising personal motivation and creativity within a context of open access to a variety of learning opportunities.
- (e) Methods of assessment should aim to describe achievement and promote self-esteem.

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Learner Managed Learning

In this issue of the New Era in Education we take a first tentative step towards the celebration and recording of the First International Conference on Learner Managed Learning, which was also the 35th WEF International Conference.

There are a lot of reasons why this will be a less than perfect record. Most importantly, there is something about the warmth and friendliness of WEF conferences which is quite unlike any other conferences that I have attended. Happily, this quality, which I think comes from taking the idea of 'fellowship' seriously, transferred to the joint venture with the Royal Society of the Arts and Polytechnic of East London. Unhappily, it cannot readily be captured in print, although various contributors come close in their reports of the conference in "Round the World".

The second reason why this will not be a perfect record is because it is not intended to be a sole, or complete, record. We hope that there will be a book which will present some of the contributions to the Conference.

And finally, if a Learner Managed Learning conference was to address successfully the issues which it raised, it had to introduce the participants to the management of their own conference. This was achieved through early morning sessions of one hour, in which participants discussed what they had seen the previous day, planned what they intended to do later, and discussed issues which arose from sessions which they had attended. Participants could select the group which they attended, and could use their own criteria. I would guess that the most important criterion was how many (or how few) stairs you had to go up to get to the group. But what happened inside the groups had a much more educational character.

In theory, and in practice, therefore, we had an intensive week of Learner Managed Learning. A

number of common threads ran through the various contributions, and the 'roots' of the thinking presented showed a very close relationship to the 'roots' of the WEF. In terms of the philosophy of education, contributors looked towards the progressive education movement, and the philosophy of Dewey, with its attempts to break down distinctions between theory and practice, between education and life, and between thinking and doing. In terms of psychology, contributors looked to a thorough-going humanistic psychology, in which the importance of individual motivation, and recognition of individual development are recognised. And in terms of pedagogy or teaching method, contributors looked towards experiential and integrative activities.

This was achieved without the feeling of restriction, or the idea that there was an acceptable dogma. The contributions collected in this issue give some idea of the range of contributions, in terms of country of origin, level of education, and curriculum areas dealt with.

All in all, this confluence of ideas produced a conference which was fun. WEF has been advocating this style of education for sixty years now, and one can only hope that before long it will produce schools, colleges, and lessons which are also fun.

In addition to the conference contributions, I am pleased that I can include an article by Tom Leimdorfer on teaching creative responses to conflict, and a report on the 25th General Conference of Unesco by Rex Andrews. They both convey some of the same, constructive spirit which was so much in evidence at the Learner Managed Learning Conference.

David Turner

THE SCHOOL PACKAGE : ASPECTS OF A WHOLE SCHOOL APPROACH

James Jackman

Abstract

The article describes the application of flexible, pupil managed strategies into a state school, and looks at the implications for resources, values, staff development and time management.

Introduction

There are two characteristics from which I derived the school's aims and objectives. They are that the curriculum shall be regarded as a total experience; and the pupil will be an active participant in his or her own learning programme.

The whole school approach is realised in the constant use of learning resources by individual pupils, the competence they show in handling techniques of problem solving, the working association between departments and the range of opportunities for pupils to be taking decisions about their studies.

The production of an approach to learning which has made a coherent style in a whole school is difficult. I shall address four issues of management which have been significant in our development. They are

- the centralisation of resource provision,
- the relationship between a centralised resource system and school values,
- the dynamic factor in staff systems, and
- management of time.

In a recently published TVEI document entitled *Flexible Learning*, Michael Aarut and Colin Nash refer to 'islands of improvement' in curricular practice and describe the management support which would aid development and increase the area of practice. There is a history of reports, documents and projects which describe examples of excellent practice founded upon the enthusiasm and expertise of individuals or groups, but which failed to be permanent and major influences upon their institutions.

Individuals on their islands could maintain their sea walls but seaward drainage was beyond them.

I am aware of the enormous task of modifying the understanding of teachers facing the challenges of an heuristic role. The management of libraries, networks and resource centres is a complex, which is more difficult when use rates are high. Differentiation in material and the integration of the teaching of skills into the programme of departments are major steps to take. Acceptance by a department of the responsibility to contribute space in its programme to the teaching of a skill represents a shift in vision. Although they may expect the pupil to use that skill the teachers are widening their viewpoint and are accepting a corporate responsibility.

The facilities at The Park School are extremely good so that variation in learning paths is made wider. Over many years financial support from parents, the Authority and from industrial sponsors has made such projects as the initial teaching of keyboard skills possible through the teaching network and the whole school network further encourages the application of I.T. to all subjects.

Integration and the mutually supportive role of departments have helped to overcome the problem of transference where a pupil found difficulty in applying to a task a skill which has been learned elsewhere. Learning a skill when it is needed and then by immediate use reinforcing it seems good practice. For example, early in the first year science course pupils need to understand classification. Having handled, examined, and smelt a wide range of objects, children have to use a written source of information to add to their report. So the scientists teach the Dewey System of location, thereby extending the concept of classification and initiating a skill which is soon used by other

specialists. Thus the extension of departmental cooperation has enabled us to practice a number of cross curricular programmes.

Centralisation of Resource Provision

‘An important mechanism in achieving school and departmental objectives is the development of a high level of pupil involvement in the learning process. The resource department is a focus through which school and departmental objectives may be achieved. The teaching and learning resource material, the library, the skills base, the staff information area, computer suite, school network, lecture theatres and the services they provide are centralised.’ (Park School document - Resource Provision)

Experiential learning relies upon excellent organisation, clear objectives, active working relationships between pupils and teachers and the easy access to high quality resources.

Adequate funding must be provided if the level of provision is intended to match the whole school curriculum. At 12 per cent of the total capitation expenditure the school’s Resource Department

"In any situation a pupil should have the skills needed to make the task they are tackling possible."

is the largest single recipient of curricular funding. Even so careful management is necessary to obtain balance between main stream curricular needs and extension material, books and the vast range of other material, consumables and hardware. Centralisation does enable any department to use, for the period it is needed, a high level of provision.

The subsuming of departmental funds to resource provision is accompanied with each department having the opportunity to define needs which could be met through central resources and which could become part of the central resource budget. Submissions for specific additions to the resource stock encourage a sense of ownership and familiarity with the area’s potential.

Access and Ethos

Flexibility within topics and courses is destructive of pupils’ performance and motivation if progress cannot be maintained.

Satisfaction and impetus need the most apt resource. Not only must these be well chosen but they must be accessible at the time they are needed.

In reality this means that either plentiful and rich materials are available where the pupils work or that children move to the resource centre. The rate of progress of an individual pupil makes the organisation of a common time for all pupils in the group to move off to the centre so difficult as to make it impracticable. If secondary school pupils are to be given a curriculum which promises a form of individuality, and those courses are to be well founded, at some stage the issue of pupil movement has to be resolved. It is not unknown for the sight of a pupil walking alone along a school corridor to excite a range of reactions.

The Rutter Report commented upon classes which in some schools could be left by the

teacher and their performance hardly changed. I suggest that such a school has expressed, knowingly or not, qualities it values so that they have been absorbed into every day expectations. Perhaps the

pupils have acquired a relationship between themselves and their work, and their relationship with their teacher is not dominant. Numerous documents describe the professional uncertainties felt by many teachers in the changes in methodology and classroom management they are expected to face.

The level and style of pupil access is potentially the most difficult hurdle in developing a whole school approach to this form of methodology. The system by which individual children may be permitted to leave their classroom and to visit the resource centre needs careful organisation and negotiation. A thorough understanding of the value system of the school is essential to identify where there may be conflict and to understand the true basis of the differences in viewpoint and interpretation.

At whole school level the institution can evaluate and provide the support for pupil and teacher and so raise the odds for success. Access

is impossible if the centre is timetabled for any non-centre class use. As a central provision it cannot be used as a tutor base.

But real difficulties are based upon the expression of values which are valid. Schools traditionally value quietness perhaps as an indicator of studious application, perhaps as a measure of the teacher's role. Commitment is desirable and certainly distractions undermine the atmosphere of investigation so the educational value of carpets, soft wall panelling and insulated ceilings is high.

Children should be working. The bemused pupil is not only found when working independently, but in any situation a pupil should have the skills needed to make the task they are tackling possible. Skills cannot be assumed and pupils must be taught the competencies in book or menu search which will get them to the information so that the real educational process of evaluation of information and its application may be enjoyed.

Will children go 'walk-about'? Why should they if they have to produce the solution to their problem on returning to the class teacher: if they are clear about their task: if they have learned the skills of information search: if there is informed assistance available in the centre: if every passing teacher enquires how they are getting on.

High expectations of pupil movement are quite compatible with an easy and purposeful level of access. Success in generating a high level of pupil use has the delight of producing other problems, used book stock, shortage of ancillary help, inadequate computer capacity.

Role and Power

The third issue I shall present is the identification of a significant role for the actions of individual people as opposed to structures which create the culture of the institution; it is the culture which nourishes growth. Structures may provide the opportunities but results may be disappointing.

The National Council for Educational Technology provides excellent material in defining the role of the librarian in support of self study. If that role is to be effective in its support of curriculum shift the manager needs a high level of understanding of the curricular relevance and of the learning capacity of materials which the centre holds. To co-ordinate these demands skills of a high order. This role is defined and met at The Park School by the Coordinator of Learning Resources. She teaches alongside colleagues in three subject departments, is a member of several management groups and has the power to effect the spending of all departments. Thus financial power is modified by the psychological understanding of being involved in the design of departmental learning units at first hand.

The Deputy Head (Curriculum) has the power to ensure that the curriculum reflects the aims and objectives of the school. Techniques used

include block timetabling, the use of staff bonus, recruitment and influence upon the distribution of departmental budgets. Regular meetings with the Head and other Deputies

coordinate these developmental processes with the other internal and external activities of the school and retain the parameters of responsibility.

The Manager of the Professional Development Programme discusses with colleagues the use of supply staff and the application of time and finance to support interest groups, working parties and departmental teams. He affects in a structured way the professional development and understanding of the teaching force.

Together this group is a strong dynamic for managed change. Operating as a management group called the CELL it influences methodology, cross curricular developments and in responding to influences from many sources has supported the development of the Industrial Advisory Group, the Technology Development Group, Pastoral Group, SCAN which is the management group for Information

*"Hierarchies within staffs
are concerned to maintain
the 'steady state'."*

Technology and Learning Skills, and National Curriculum Groups. Written role definitions explain the responsibilities which exists between these three senior members of staff and heads of departments.

This principle of an inter-disciplinary group with a defined objective has been used extensively and the Professional Development Plan and such detailed documents as the school's submission for TVEI extension and I.T. Plan are successful results. All these programmes had a direct relationship with the learning styles accessible to pupils and in evolving opportunities for individual response.

Pat Noble has made the point that role change may be difficult to sustain without institutional support. At The Park School in addition to the Manager of INSET and the Coordinator of Learning Resources we provide induction courses, highly developed reprographics and desk top publishing service, an in-school magazine for staff and contacts with industrialists who may be able to influence opinion and practice. These are examples of support which help the teacher to concentrate upon the design of the learning process. Roles and systems provide opportunities for things to happen, people see that they do and those who can sustain developments are as important as the initiators.

The Time Element

It is foolish to disregard the management of time. An adequate response to meeting the needs of differentiating courses of work for pupils will entail the use of a discriminating battery of material, the design of flexible learning courses and an adeptness in managing the learning environment. The demands on first examination may seem overwhelming but this is a situation we create sometimes for our pupils.

The school calendar and the diary can be used to coordinate activities that may impinge upon individual pupils and teaching staff. The coordination of deadlines and interim assessments will remove some of the stress of anticipation and of overload. Pupils need to include within their learning skills programmes

the management of time and pupil planning diaries are a useful tool. It is important to be careful about considering every unit of work as tailor made and to consider the ways in which materials and activities may serve several purposes. Working as a group will not speed the rate of production but it usually improves the quality of the result. Professional development may also be designed on an individual basis so that time during the course of the working day may be used effectively.

Nevertheless the total time available is limited and we have used the advantages of a day based on a continental style. This provides a period of time at the end of the school session in which teachers may meet and still conclude their working day at a reasonable time.

The four issues I have indicated illustrate fundamental factors in the development of a practice which engages the whole school. They directly influence the professional performance of teachers and the performance of pupils.

Structures are enabling systems and it is worthwhile to evaluate the dynamics and their strength within the school structures. I am not sure that the models of line management most often seen are sound models for schools wishing to achieve change. The CELL, the working groups and the cross subject cooperation I have fleetingly described are intended to use the abilities of all members. Hierarchies within staffs are concerned to maintain the 'steady state' and the operational process, and an alternative structure is needed for different objectives. The sharing of values by everyone in a school, is difficult - impossible if they are not identified - but this acceptance is at the heart of a whole school approach.

I like Kirkhead's comment, 'Corporate culture is like wine - rough manipulation will not improve it, nor will it benefit from benign neglect. Only through good judgement and delicate handling can it achieve its full potential.'

Heady stuff!

James Jackman is the Headmaster of The Park School, Rayleigh, Essex.

ALTERNATIVE SCHOOLS IN SWITZERLAND IN THE 19TH AND 20TH CENTURY

Hans U.Grunder

I would like to make you familiar with an aspect of the Swiss history of education, which is closely related to the subject of the Conference on Learner Managed Learning. Alternative schools in Switzerland adhere, of course, to the principle of enabling autonomous, self-guided learning. Moreover, some of the foundations in Switzerland are obviously connected to the 'New Education Movement' of the early 20th century.

Talking about Swiss alternative schools, one must address two alternative institutions, because they are important corner-stones in the alternative school scene in Switzerland. One would have to speak of Father Gregoire Girard (1765-1850), who adapted to Switzerland the ideas of the Scot, Andrew Bell (1753-1832) and propagated the 'enseignement mutuel', the 'monitorial-system', as an alternative way of teaching. One would also have to speak of the Bernese politician and school reformer Philipp Emanuel v.Fellenberg (1771-1844), who, with his 'Republic of Education' inspired not only philosophers and pedagogues such as Pestalozzi or Robert Dale Owen, but also writers such as Goethe.

Discussing alternative schools in Switzerland, as they have grown in the past two centuries, cannot be completed within a brief article. The thesis of this text is that alternative schools in Switzerland have been, throughout the time, as I would say, 'Learner Managed Learning'-based. I shall start with an extended, characteristic quotation: "A school, acting in the midst of life, stands for the following: Learning is an open process consisting of such important components as experience and action. Social, artistic and manual advancement are taken as

important as intellectual development. Instead of marks or reports half-yearly written statements explain the children's development. Parents actively participate in the daily school affairs. They want to know what their children come to know and how they proceed. Children are taught by skilled teachers, who themselves have families. Common work - together, not each against the other. We achieve our results through establishing a good, stress-free classroom climate."

In this way, a Swiss alternative school, founded at the end of the seventies, sums up in a leaflet its educational programme. What a

"Alternative schools in Switzerland have been, 'Learner Managed Learning' -based."

contemporary alternative to the state school system considers to be important with regard to the pedagogical ideas is included in this passage. Therefore we have to deal with a 'pedagogic

concept' as it has been worked out, tested, criticised and occasionally revised by most of the contemporary alternative schools. Swiss 'Open Schools' currently try to base their work on such plans. A number of the pedagogical principles held in common by those schools can be identified, but it should be noted that it is not implied that conformity is desirable or achievable. Alternatives to the state school-system, the 'Open Schools' for example, are private, parentally financed, integrated day-schools, and they have to fulfil the canton's curriculum in the same way as every other school, because they are subject to the usual inspection. Supported by a school-association, they try to encourage the children entrusted to them. They consider musical, manual and scientific subjects to be of equal importance and they practise a far-reaching co-education, which includes the same instruction for boys and girls.

Every child, including handicapped children, are encouraged according to their individual ability and gifts.

Individualizing instruction ('Inner differentiation' or 'differentiation in the classroom', as we say) is supplemented by supporting courses and optional courses. Because learning processes should refer to the pupil's everyday life, school buildings are taken as places where one can learn with others, and join in projects, school enterprises, excursions and school camps. The children's school achievement is kept track of by periodic 'observation reports', that assess boys and girls according to their own performance, and not by comparison with other children. Under such conditions teachers and parents work together closely. Parent-teacher meetings and parental involvement in activities, even in the lessons, produce an intense cooperation of the adults.

A wide ranging list of pedagogical and institutional objectives, like the ones above, is a considerable challenge for the parties concerned - children, adults and teachers - even when it is sometimes too much for all of them. This is clearly shown by the history of the Swiss 'Open Schools'. During the first years of their existence they all suffered from certain 'teething problems', which, as may be verified at a glance at certain schools, are unavoidable.

This collective problem solving just mentioned regarding pedagogical and school problems often appears to prove rather cumbersome. To discuss in bigger or smaller groups of interested people is usually much more difficult than simply to give general instructions. On the other hand, the participants are all taken seriously, and they seem to be able, collectively, to deal with whatever comes their way.

Briefly, I shall discuss some of the most notable aspects of today's alternative schools in Switzerland. Although the contemporary alternatives hardly refer explicitly to historical 'precursors' - except the Steiner, Montessori, and Freinet Schools - their pedagogical ideas are

founded, knowingly or unknowingly, in a long tradition, which passes on the aforesaid postulates. Whoever in our country tends towards 'an other school', appeals to - and this is demonstrated by the respective sources of the last hundred and fifty years - Pestalozzi and the slogan of the 'harmonious cultivation of all the child's abilities'. Occasionally Rousseau is quoted, especially in the texts after 1968, when the founders of alternative schools followed a so

"Alternatives schools in Switzerland do have a living, sometimes hidden, and therefore often hardly recognized, tradition."

called rousseauistic, 'anti-authoritarian' practice. In the didactic and methodical field those ideas of reform, adopted in Switzerland between 1880 and 1930 and still discussed today are valid as a basis for the alternatives.

They are about project/plan related instruction, individualisation of teaching and work methods, Jena plan directed instruction or Freinet methods. Some of these purposes have been taken over and tried out by the state schools.

Alternatives to the state schools in Switzerland do have - as in other countries - a living, sometimes hidden, and therefore often hardly recognized, tradition. They used to be, and often still are, classified purely as insignificant outsiders. By declaring oneself in favour of an alternative to the state school in the 18th and 19th centuries, meant postulating a new position towards the child, or towards the learning process and therefore towards the educational system. Moreover it meant being able to change the school radically with regard to its contents, in methodical or instructional questions, even in matters of the objectives. One can judge the different positions of the alternative schools by the intensity of their critique of the status quo.

Now, I shall single out a few schools for comment. They all regarded themselves as 'another possibility' of teaching.

The Town of Geneva: Fertile soil for alternative school projects (1890 onwards)

At the beginning of the century critical opinions of contemporary schooling arose in the French speaking parts of Switzerland, which stimulated school reforms, particularly in

Geneva. This city later became the centre of pedagogical innovation. In no other region of the country were similar attempts detectable at that time. A number of pedagogues, psychologists, educationists, teachers and cultural workers demanded a firm and resolute educational reform for their part of the country. Harshly criticising the traditional way of teaching, Theodore Flournoy (1854-1920), Edouard Claparede, Pierre Bovet, Adolphe Ferriere, Jean Piaget, and Robert Dottrens (1893-1984) and Louis Meylan (1877-1969) affirmed a revision of the whole educational system. They proposed more relaxed instructional didactics and improved, methodical teaching qualification; instruction should take into consideration the child's personality; school should start from children's needs, and school should treat its pupils according to their talents. School should be at the children's disposal, affording them a childlike life and forcing the teachers to establish a 'culture generale', a 'general culture'.

The following 'New Schools' were founded, between 1902 and 1919: New School of...

Glarisegg (Steckborn) 1902

La Chatagneraie (Coppet) 1908

Hof Oberkirch (Uznach) 1906

Boudry (Neuchatel) 1910

Kefikon (Islikon) 1907

Gilamont (Vevey) 1910

Chailly (Lausanne) 1907

Bex (Montreux) 1911

Ecole Foyer (Bex) 1919

All 'New Schools' have in common the idea of initiating a culturally valuable impetus and progressive educational politics by the way of an 'inner school-reform' - as private country boarding-schools, striving for a natural, rounded, culturally aware education. From Cecil Reddie's Abbotsholme and John Haiden Badley's Bedales the idea of the so called 'New Schools' came to the continent and to Switzerland with the German Hermann Lietz. One of the most important advocates of the whole movement was the Genevese Adolphe Ferriere, who later on (1921) belonged to the initiators of the 'World Education Fellowship', editing the French language issue of 'The New Era', the magazine 'Pour l'Ere Nouvelle'.

'New Schools'

In 1896 Dr.H.Looser, who had been seen the new schools of Abbotsholme and Bedales, and who had visited the German 'Landerziehungs-heime' run by Hermann Lietz, changed his father's 'Institut Grinau' into a so called 'Modern School'. The number of pupils increased steadily up to forty. The lessons were held in small classes. Courses in manual skills were offered, and the Grinau Institute's daily plan resembled that of the other Swiss 'New Schools'.

Bicycle tours, hiking, tennis and cricket, the latter brought back from England by Looser, took up a considerable part of the pupil's and teacher's leisure time. In the fortnightly 'Parliament', questions and problems concerning the school were discussed - in the sense of an exchange of views. In the social sphere pupils (there were only boys) and teachers lived the daily coexistence of an internationally mixed group. Until 1940 the 'Grinau Institute' operated as a 'New School', whereafter the buildings, which are still standing as they used to at that time, were transformed into an old people's home.

In 1912 Pierre Bovet, T.Florunoy, E.Claparede and A.Ferriere founded the 'Institute Jean-Jacques Rousseau' with the aim of providing students, who wanted to become educators, with the knowledge required in a three year course of study. The 'Institute' wanted the students to become acquainted with scientific methods and to establish firmly pupil-oriented didactics. The lessons, in a real 'Learner Managed' sense, took the form of conferences, practical experiments with children in school, and personal student's work. Furthermore the on-going teachers were schooled in the history of education. They learned about the organisation of school and they read texts on the sociology of education.

From 1913 on, the 'Maison des Petits', which is to say the elementary school, took up its work, representing a kind of 'test bed' of the 'Institute', where the axioms of the 'New School Movement' were practically tested. Another place to prove the 'New Education' in Geneva was the 'Ecole du Mail', also, opened for future

teachers as a field for trial and error. The school, working under the direction of Robert Dottrens, aimed to realize the principles of the 'active school' of Ferriere, and the 'functional education' of Claparede, and to pass on the new methods to the candidates.

From 1917 on a further school was started, the 'Maison des Grands', guaranteeing education up to university entrance. The alternative to the traditional school became an everyday institution, as was demonstrated by the fact that a couple of schools in Geneva tried to realize the idea of the 'New School'. In 1922 the 'Maison des Petits' was taken over by the town (as a regular school) and from 1929 on the 'Ecole du Mail' was the 'Institute's' official laboratory-school.

Not far from Geneva, in a Lausanne suburb, a school was established in 1909, obviously ignored by the Genevese educational reformers: The 'Ecole Ferrer'.

The 'Ferrer School': An anarchist experiment (1910-1919)

This was established as a working class attempt to set up a school against the traditional middle class educational institutions, but also against the bourgeois 'New Schools' of the alternative model. Since then, such endeavours have hardly been seen in the history of education. Therefore it is worth looking at such a school, at the 'Ecole Ferrer' for instance, because this institution is one of those libertarian alternatives founded after the turn of the century.

Based on the pedagogical thoughts of Francisco Ferrer, the Spanish libertarian and fighter for an improved school, this attempt has remained unique in Switzerland. On 1 November 1910 the Ecole Ferrer at Chailly above Lausanne opened its doors to 28 children. "Its instruction is chosen to be adapted to both the children's needs and to the necessities of the working class, at the same time", declared the initiators. The child would be modelled to be a character of initiative, who would know how to lay hold of labour and to maintain it to the end. On the other hand, respect towards another

personality excluded religious or political influence over the pupils. The 'Ecole' tried hard to "develop the physical strength, the will and the farsightedness of the children entrusted to the school... to make use their hands, their eyes and their intelligence." Lessons were always to be concrete, practical, living and coeducational (in all branches); homework, penalties and rewards were forbidden; all moral influence was rejected. Experiments, exercises for the sense organs and socially oriented learning games accompanied every instruction. Of course,

natural sciences followed the example and there were several means which took up the children's interests and slowly widened their know-

ledge: excursions, discoveries, collections of plants, minerals and metals, visits in factories and workshops, map-reading, meteorology, physical and chemical experiments. An additional basis of the instruction were drawings and plastic work.

For several years workers, only one of them a teacher by profession, taught a wide range of subjects taken out of their own professional life, and they even supplied the necessary materials. The 'Ferrer School' shut its doors in April 1919, because, as one observer complained, "the movement from which arose has been decreasing steadily since the war".

By this time the 'Serene School' (Maria Boschetti-Alberti) in the Ticino had evolved, an alternative within the public school system, which even today has not acquired any reputation in northern Switzerland. I pass to the 'Bern Open School', an institution connected with the social development of the late sixties.

'Bern Open School' : 1978-1983

In 1978 'Bern Open School' started its work. Over a long period all the participants - I have been one of them - agreed on what they did not want to arrive at. The school was finally marked out by some characteristic signs. It is a day school offering an education for primary and secondary classes as well as for the handicapped. In the daily work the three groups are not

"School should be at the children's disposal."

separated. The 'Open School' charged school fees, not being sustained by the state. Children were not divided into year classes but in three stages (lower, middle and higher grades). One class did not consist of more than fifteen pupils. The 'Open School' committed itself to guarantee access to higher schools. Notions like 'social learning', self-government, 'parent's work', as well as teaching methods like projects and the idea of 'inner differentiation', played an important part in the common school day of the alternative school. In any case, 'Open Schools' which grew out of these times referred to the following: flexible structures for 'Learner Managed Learning', and appropriate to the individually discerned needs of the participating children, teachers and parents. I break off here, coming to the end.

The situation of Swiss alternative schools today

Though a couple of alternatives to the state educational system were to be traced out for the last two hundred years a description would go beyond the limits of this text. Therefore at the end I return to the beginning of my sketch, asking the question for the current situation of the alternative schools in Switzerland. Actually the landscape of the alternatives to the state school has been agitated for the second time since 1971. Again, 'Open Schools' take up their work. Never since, the 'Waldorfpädagogik', Rudolf Steiner's pedagogic principles, have there been such a strong process of development as there are today. The series of Steiner School foundations is not at all disconnected, yet. The Montessori Schools, too, steadily get more in number. Besides those mentioned there is a wide range of private schools and religious educational institutions. Never before have so many 'school-projects' been planned as recently, and not only by private initiators. In a couple of cantons, even the municipalities have developed projects, which obviously are not to be considered as alternatives, but as reforms

within the public educational system. Like the alternative schools, they are based on the model of a child centred school. That is why they take into consideration the replacement of marks by written school reports, experiment with new combinations of subjects and initiate individualizing instruction. Parallel to this 'expansion' goes a rapidly changing view of the didactics of teaching and learning in the public schools.

The spectrum from the alternative schools to the traditional school system is far reaching: it goes from Montessori Schools, anthroposophic Steiner Schools, over the 'Open School' to those schools that are not easy to define.

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CUSTOMER DRIVEN VERSUS OPEN MANAGEMENT QUALIFICATION COURSES - ISSUES AND EXAMPLES

Professor David W. Birchall & Dr Suzanne E. Pollack

Abstract

The Management College together with Brunel, the University of West London, has been providing postgraduate management education since 1974. These programmes are designed for experienced managers from a wide range of backgrounds.

The degree of learner-managed learning permitted has been a consideration since the initial conceptual design of our postgraduate Masters programmes. More recent moves into distance learning and customised programmes have highlighted certain tensions.

In this paper the authors reflect on their experience of establishing Henley MBA programmes, the launch of the MBA through distance learning in 1984 and the development of company dedicated MBA programmes (Tailored MBAs) in 1987. From this it will be seen that the provision of learner managed learning for postgraduate students can be costly and complex. In addition, the educational provider's ability to deliver learner managed learning can be both enhanced and impaired by the development of company specific MBA programmes.

The Henley Master of Business

Administration (MBA) - some background

MBA degrees have been offered in the UK since the 1960s. The degree title was imported from the USA where the numbers studying business at a postgraduate level are in the tens of thousands. However, the numbers in the UK have not increased dramatically, currently only being about 2500 per annum.

The aims and content of the UK's MBA degrees differ quite considerably. However, all MBA providers aim to develop the student's ability to tackle strategic issues facing organisations and think conceptually. Some providers also consider the development of other

personal skills to be equally important. Most include project work, but not all require that project work be done for and in an organisation.

All MBA graduates are expected to understand the basic disciplines of management - Economics, Finance, Accounting; Human Resource Management; Marketing; Management Science; Operations Management. They are expected to be able to utilise this in analysing business problems in an interdisciplinary way. Business Strategy and International Business are areas in which this ability is further developed and tested. Options on MBA programmes may extend subjects further e.g. Advanced Marketing, relate to specific sectors e.g. Service Sector Finance, or develop specific themes e.g. Total Quality Management.

Henley with Brunel, the University of West London, first offered Masters level courses in 1974. The original programme design was modular to combine four periods of residential study with three organisation-based projects.

The first residential module included a considerable amount of experiential learning through group activity, but also a high level of programmed activity. As the modules progressed the emphasis on managing learning was passed from the College to the learner. In the final stages the students worked on topics of their own choice under the guidance of a tutor.

The modular MBA programme aimed to develop decisive, self-confident and skilled managers capable not only of strategic analysis, but also of managing operations and implementing change successfully.

In 1979 Henley introduced a part time MBA programme. Here the teaching was also modular but in contrast to the modular attendance pattern modular in that it was largely based around subject disciplines e.g. Accounting, Marketing, Human Resource Management. The course

formed the basis of the distance learning MBA launched in 1984. The latter now has over 4000 students registered worldwide with centres in nine countries.

The MBA through distance learning programme aims to give access to management education to a wider group of practising managers. We state that we aim to develop ability to apply the theoretical principles of management to business situations, as well as a capacity for critical thinking, personal skills in diagnosing problems, managing change and convincing others of the quality of one's ideas.

The Open Distance Learning MBA was followed in 1987 with the Tailored MBA. This was developed to meet an increasing demand from corporate clients for groups of their staff to work together on an MBA. The College believed it could tailor its open MBA to relate more closely to any special circumstances of the business and to integrate it into executive development programmes. Links between the programme and the business were seen as an effective way of getting the rapid transfer of new knowledge and skills into the everyday operations of the organisation. There are now 13 companies participating and over 250 tailored MBA students.

The open distance learning programme is based on the study of multi-media materials, optional attendance at workshops and tutor support via a telephone helpline and more recently electronic communications. The programme has flexible start and end dates, 4 examination sittings per year and no assignment deadlines. In the College's opinion students have been afforded maximum flexibility and considerable opportunity to manage their own learning. However, some students have found that the amount of flexibility they have been given can impede their progress. There are no enforced deadlines for workshops, exams or assignments. The dissertation which is the last piece of formally assessed MBA work, must be submitted within two years of completing the previous stages of the programme for which there is no time limit.

There are national initiatives to increase the numbers benefiting from management education as well as the relevance of that

education to industry and commerce. For example, the Management Charter Initiative (now under the National Forum for Management Education and Development) is developing a three tier structure - Certificate, Diploma and MBA. The emphasis sought is on competence development, with assessment of prior learning and final assessment competence based. Henley is responding to this initiative. The Career Manager is a new certificate course which has been developed in line with the MCI objectives. The MBA is in the process of being restructured, so that it too fits into the MCI qualification scheme.

MBAs - Scope for Learner Managed Learning

The extent to which students on MBA programmes have previously studied one or more of the disciplines of management varies considerably. Also the relevance of prior work experience varies. In consequence the student group is heterogeneous but the skills and competencies achieved through the programme have to reach a common minimum level. Given the diversity of backgrounds, skill and knowledge levels the programmes have to be flexible enough to address the personal needs of individual members.

Programmes offer varying degrees of student autonomy on a number of dimensions. This can be viewed on the following:

1. Overall Programme Objectives

The objectives specified by the provider are broad and would generally be viewed as relevant for those seeking senior managerial roles. Potential students often have difficulty at the application stage of articulating specific personal needs. For many a lack of in-depth understanding of both the content and the senior management role creates difficulty in making personal choices.

2. Programme Structure

Where programmes are based on subject modules choices may be available in ordering of study and in the study modules to selected from the overall programme. The latter is available through options rather than the compulsory basic disciplines except where prior learning and experience makes further study unnecessary.

3.Modules Aims

In some modules e.g. Accounting for Managers, tutors expect a level of competence to be demonstrated across the subject area and formal examination is preferred. Here students have limited choice. In other subjects e.g. Human Resource Management, assessment is by assignment and considerable choice is given to enable learners to develop understanding in areas they feel relevant. In these modules the learner can pursue their own interests within an overall framework.

4.Schedule

Scheduling is taken here to include attendance periods, the activities whilst in attendance, assignment deadlines and examination dates. Such matters may be the subject of rules and regulations. Penalties may be imposed for non-compliance e.g. marks deducted for late submission of assignments.

5.Pedagogic Approach

Many MBA programmes aim to develop skills as well as understanding. Managerial competence is based on a range of personal qualities including intellectual skills. A key skill is that of being able to use experience to good effect. It is unlikely that these skills and knowledge will be effectively developed through one approach to teaching. In consequence programmes use a mix of methods - lecture, tutorial, case study, group activities, project work. The degree of experiential learning offered varies between programmes. The choice available to the learner may be that of one MBA versus others rather than within any one programme.

6.Student Support

Programmes offer a range of support services - subject guidance, project supervision, counselling (career and personal), administration, study techniques.

The accessibility to some of these services is problematic for distance learning students who are expected to also use services available through their employer and work place.

7.Peer Group Membership and Support

The benefits derived from any study programme include those from membership of a student body and academic community. MBA students benefit particularly from exchanges

with managers from similar as well as dissimilar backgrounds. Membership of the peer group is important for motivation and sustenance.

The group can also be a vehicle for experiential learning and the development of personal skills e.g. leadership, negotiation. The experiential learning may be through an action learning approach to project work.

Course designers can create conditions and a structure to facilitate the learning opportunity for membership and learning through groups but the learner has to make a personal commitment for learning to take place.

8.Assessment Methods

The flexibility offered to both academic and learner will be influenced by the assessment methods adopted. This prescribes the extent of formal examination versus continuous assessment vs project work. The learner may have little choice once on a programme.

In the following sections we will outline some of the differences between the modes of study offered.

Learner Managed Learning - Face-to-Face Teaching Compared with Distance Learning

There are significant differences between face-to-face MBAs and the open distance learning programme in the extent of tutor versus self management.

Those on full time and part time courses follow the same programme of study. The taught part of the programme comprises three of the four terms for a full time student. This follows a set timetable for lectures, tutorials, assignment deadlines and exams. Six of the eight subject areas are compulsory elements in the programme, except for the few whose prior study and work experience results in them completing a third of the options available. Project work representing one-ninth of the taught course and a separate dissertation are self-selected. For project work normally students work independently and each is allocated an advisor. Students are required to work to deadlines, whether working individually or in groups - a discipline seen as essential to good management. It is also important for course administrators who are well

aware of the 80/20 rule i.e. 80% of the time is spent on 20% of the students. Deviations from deadlines by tutors and students are a source of additional, unprogrammed work. In practice, tutors often assist in arranging projects for full time students and accept, in some cases, projects based on literature reviews or surveys done independent of a sponsoring organisation.

In contrast distance learning students plan and organise their own study. There is limited progress chasing by the College although help is offered to those who seek it. In addition to decisions about when and where, students can vary the order of study to fit in with personal career plans e.g. for those entering personnel management the three human resource management subjects can be completed initially for the award of a diploma. The period of study is unlimited except at the dissertation stage. Also, arrangements exist through the CNAACredit Accumulation Scheme for students to switch between colleges if their personal circumstances change.

Many students transport their distance learning programme to other parts of the world e.g. a recent graduate has been employed in the UK, Norway and the Netherlands during his period of study, another UK student has been in Nigeria and the Netherlands.

Assignment work is very similar on each mode of study. Students are given choices; assignments, where practical, require consideration of personal experience or organisational practice in relation to the theoretical issues being studied. Students can pursue their own areas of interest within the framework of the subject area. Questions have been devised in an open-ended manner so that they are not restrictive in terms of interpretation; this again allows students freedom of choice. However those attending classes have greater access to tutors for guidance and support.

Students on face-to-face courses at an early stage work in groups on set tasks aimed in part at team building. Peer group pressure is an important element of subsequent motivation. Such opportunities are not created for distance

learners, although they can join contact groups locally and some social events are organised.

Access to tutors is inevitably less on distance learning programmes than for face-to-face study. Considerable investment, however, has been made in computer mediated communications to enable distance learning students to have access electronically to tutors, tutorials and other students. This system is asynchronous enabling students to use it at times convenient to themselves. The system also enables more social activity e.g. coffee shop discussions.

Company MBA programmes are often initiated by the management development function or personnel departments. Consequently they have to convince Boards that the programmes are essential and that there will be a pay back. In seeking to demonstrate 'value for money' they will emphasise such features as the relevance to managing the company, the contribution from project work, the limited time necessarily taken out of the working week and the motivational and retention aspect of

sponsoring employees. The sponsors have two main constituents to satisfy - their Board and the students. Many Boards need to be constantly shown the merits of the investment and wish to see

progress against objectives.

The students have personal expectations which collectively they may voice e.g. time allowances for study. They can become a 'pressure group' for change and the MBA itself should teach them how to better achieve their collective ends.

Personnel and Training specialists have experience in designing and offering training. The models for training are not the same as educational models. Training focuses more on prescription, education on developing critical capabilities. Training often gives solutions, education raises questions for debate. Evaluation of much company training is by immediate response and preferences. MBA students, on the other hand, have to demonstrate academic achievement and may fail despite being good managers. These differences in

"Students can pursue their own areas of interest within the framework of the subject area."

perspective and culture are potential sources of tension between provider, sponsor and recipient.

Responses to these pressures have resulted in a more structured MBA programme for the corporate market. Subject order, assignment and examination dates are scheduled. Students falling behind are chased either by the College or the Company. Line managers have become involved, their support being sought. However, this can create further pressures on students to be seen to be performing.

The student following a tailored MBA has a more complex set of relationships to manage than the individual open programme student. On the surface the freedom for learner managed learning is reduced. However, the increased complexity of the student's position brings with it new opportunities to practise management skills. Certainly there may be more need to negotiate and lack of political skill is likely to be exposed.

Students in company sponsored groups, despite the company's statements to the contrary, enter into a competitive arena. Those achieving most through the programme, particularly through projects, are most likely to succeed.

The Open MBA through distance learning is extremely flexible, allowing the learner to take maximum responsibility for their approach to and progress through the programme. Tailored MBA students, by contrast, are following a structured route. However, within this route there is a significant degree of flexibility but it must be negotiated, since it is not automatically the Tailored student's "right". There are advantages and disadvantages in both models for the provider and the student. For example, the flexibility of the Open Programme can be overwhelming. It does seem that the extra structure imposed on Tailored students is helpful, perhaps because it is not rigid. It can be deviated from if the individual prefers, but at the same time it provides a plan with which to work either from or to.

For the provider, maximum student flexibility is expensive. What stock levels are required? When will assignments or projects be submitted? When should invoicing take place?

When should workshops take place? Henley has overcome many of the problems faced by such a flexible approach, but it has also recognised that the additional costs incurred in relation to the benefit created for the student, are not in either the Institution's nor the student's interest. Therefore, the Open MBA will in future be more structured, so that it too can benefit from the approach adopted for our Company MBAs.

The sponsor of tailored MBAs has influence over many elements of the programme. The main area of concern at the outset are aims, structure and content. The pedagogic approach is also of concern. A fit is sought between the existing company training approaches and those

of the MBA. This might lead to questioning of the methods for assessment. Of particular interest are issues such as the accreditation of in-house courses, the assessment of work-based learning and action learning

"Effective managers are those who are self-starters, able to manage amongst other things their own personal development."

in groups.

Learner-Managed Learning - some reflections

In management education the costs of providing academic services are rising at a rate well above inflation. Expansion in demand has increased pressure on the supply side. Also employers are seeking to influence the aims, content and process of delivery of MBA programmes.

Effective managers are those who are self-starters, able to manage amongst other things their own personal development. However, they are also very busy and experience many conflicting pressures on their time.

In this context the design of distance learning programmes should remove administrative frustrations and barriers to progress, which consume time without achieving programme aims. Many managers also work at their best when they have defined tasks to be achieved and deadlines to work to. This rather argues in favour of structuring to the course, but without limiting the choice of subject matter studied and the emphasis given within the subject. It also points in the direction of combining activities - can

something that is needed at work be used for the programme? Motivation is likely to be maintained when study clearly relates to current job or aspired future role. Assignments and projects should give the choice so that managers can pursue areas they decide are of particular relevance.

Choice, however, costs money. If each assignment is unique and each project tailored, advice and assessment is inevitable more time consuming. Resources are finite and choices have to be made - learner-managed learning for the few or standardised programmes for the masses. Distance learning requires a complex administrative and backup system. Choice can increase this complexity.

When the client becomes the company rather than the individual student there is an additional dimension. Who is making the decisions and for whom? A new set of constraints emerge. The programme may become a strategic issue approved and monitored by the Board. Attempts may be made to treat it like any other investment, applying financial appraisal and cost benefit analysis. Time and effort can be expended on monitoring and control, cost justification and political issues at the expense of service to the student. All these dimensions will impact on the extent to which the student is managed versus self-managing. Degrees of freedom available in course provision are likely to be reduced by pressures from new and more powerful clients.

Educational providers faced with these new situations will inevitably make mistakes. Their new clients are likely to be more experienced at negotiating with suppliers than the educationalist. They are powerful purchasers and in a strong bargaining position. The providers have to develop skills in managing a new type of client so that an acceptable balance is achieved between the needs and preferences of all interested parties. At the end of the day the development of independent, thinking, skilled managers is the aim of all.

Summary

We briefly discussed Masters programmes at Henley. We then moved on to consider the distance learning MBA which is offered to

individual students and corporate clients. The considerable scope for learner-managed learning and its implications were evaluated. This was particularly viewed in relation to the differences in the Open Distance Learning MBA and Tailored Company MBA Programmes.

The major conclusions were:

(i) Henley's open distance learning MBA offers the learner significant freedom of choice which for all but the truly independent learner, can be counterproductive to programme completion. It is also administratively expensive to provide.

(ii) The distance learning MBA is the most appropriate method of delivery for Tailored MBA Programmes to meet the corporate criteria of flexibility and transportability.

(iii) Tailored MBA Programmes require more structure to meet company objectives. That is to say, Tailored MBAs require targets against which students' progress can be monitored and training budgets prepared; specialist inputs related to the Company business must be accommodated as requested by the sponsor and the desired balance and mix of student contact must be planned for. In addition, there may be requests for group activities which involve some compromise of the individual's ability to manage his/her training.

(iv) Management education providers have needed to become more sophisticated in their negotiation and management of company sponsored Qualification Programmes.

One issue for the future is how can technology be effectively used to deliver distance learning MBA programmes creating a greater degree of learner managed learning. Another is the development of the "learning organisation" where not only programme members learn but also the sponsoring organisation continues to learn and develop. This is particularly important for the long term success of Tailored MBAs.

Professor David Birchall is the Director of the Development Division, and Suzanne Pollack is the Director of the Tailored MBA Programmes at Henley - The Management College.

Round the World - WEF Section News

Rosemary Crommelin

It is not always possible for the organisers to judge the success -or otherwise - of a conference at the time. As far as one could tell, everyone seemed content with the programme and the venue, there were no major crises or problems, and a general atmosphere of friendliness and happiness could be felt, together with a considerable amount of discussion which went on inside and outside the official programme.

When the Conference Committee met about four weeks later, some post-conference comments had had time to filter through. There was very favourable reaction on the timetable and the variety and quality of contributions, even to (or perhaps especially for) the final evening when we "made our own entertainment" after the Conference Dinner! Several participants hoped there would be another Learner Managed Learning (LML) Conference in the near future, but that is something the Committee will need to discuss further. Many have said it was an excellent conference, and a comment from New Zealand was that, "people have returned full of enthusiasm, stimulated by the Conference", while a participant in Leeds pinpointed, "the 9.30 to 10.30 sessions which made the

difference, because we learned from each other, and felt it was our Conference".

We are hoping that in due course a Conference book will be published, edited by David Turner and Gordon Bell, so participants will have a chance to return to the main thrust of the programme, and those who were unable to attend will have a summary of the week's deliberations. Before they left London, representatives of the overseas Sections were asked to give a brief outline of their thoughts at the end of the Conference, and here - in alphabetical order - is what they wrote.

Australia

Queensland: What a credit to the Organizing Committee! Impressed by the balance between serious reflection on the LML theme and enjoyment of English hospitality, traditions and total environment. Highlights for me? Certainly, Richard Bawden's opening address, the Royal Society of Arts venue, and the river cruise. Any unexpected outcomes or surprises? Four seasons in one Wednesday afternoon - and the amount of food that 'poms' can put away without obvious ill-effects.

Nick Baikaloff

South Australia: WEF has given us the means for interacting with a variety of people from different cultures and backgrounds. It provided opportunity for developing the international links and sharing a common vision.

Judy Casburn

Tasmania: In writing about what the Conference meant to me, I cannot help using words that have been used before. These are the things of which good conferences are made, and this was a very good conference: experiences, friendships, learning, creating, renewing, building, sharing, challenge, growth.

We will take home the visual delights of an evening cruise on the Thames, the beauty of Avery Hill in spring, and smiling faces at the banquet. We will take home the ideas and aspirations of educators who really care for young people.

We will have started to know people from our own and other countries a little better. All these experiences have been made possible by the splendid facilities and organisation. Congratulations and thank you.

Graham Woolley

Victoria: The LML Conference expectation that participants take a great deal of responsibility for their own

conference programme and learning-path was a novel and very useful idea. The conference venue was excellent, but the four-to-five flights of stairs to some rooms was a little exhausting after the third visit in a day! Participants from so many nations made this a really international affair we will all remember.

Renewed WEF friendships with many long-time supporters such as Professors Sumeragi, Iwata and Rohrs, and meeting old friends in Tony Weaver and James Hemming was again a highlight for me. The whole theme does, I believe, provide WEF with a new, exciting direction for the future. This was a renewing of WEF spirit for the 1990s!

Len Cairns

German Speaking Section

An excellent learning experience in international understanding, by fruitful discussion in the frame of fifteen nationalities.

Hermann Rohrs

India

It was Dr.Madhuriben Shah who brought me into the WEF fold. The year was 1986. Dr. Shah, who was hosting the WEF Conference in Bombay, India, asked for helpers. I volunteered, and Dr.Shah promptly appointed me, a novice, on several committees: such was her faith in people!

In 1988, Dr. Shah asked me to prepare and read a paper for the WEF Conference in Adelaide, Australia. I did.

I was undecided about the 1990 London Conference, but Dr.Kalloliniben Hazarat encouraged me to go.

WEF fever caught on weeks before the London Conference, with the visit of the Australian delegation to Rizvi High School in Bombay. Later, when Mrs. Rizvi, Vice President of the school, and I landed in London, it was these Australian delegates we ran into. What a delightful way to start off.

Registration was full of warmth and good cheer among fellow delegates. Familiar faces - friendly faces: Dr. James Hemming, Mrs. Rosemary Crommelin, Mr. Dave O'Reilly, Mr. John Stephenson; they were all there. We checked in, and then reassembled in the Main Hall which was charged with excitement and expectancy. A grand reception and dinner rounded off the first day.

We eagerly got down to work on the following day: group sessions, workshops, presentations, exploring, exchanging, interacting - formally and informally, small groups, large groups. Eltham, cut away from the outside world, provided the right atmosphere. It brought us all together for purposeful, intense exchange, and an update of ideas.

The river cruise from Greenwich to Westminster reinforced the informality and togetherness. Age, language and cultures merged harmoniously. The visit to the RSA, and the presentation there, was an enriching experience.

The Banquet on 5th April was superb and full of surprises too. Dr. Rex Andrews, who had made a stimulating and thought provoking presentation at the working sessions, now held the audience spell-bound with a magic show. Songs burst forth from all sides, and the Japanese, the French, the Australians, and others, all sang and danced, regardless of age and background.

A grand finale indeed. Another truly memorable WEF Conference. I am glad I was there.

Shakuntala R.Kilpady

Japan

The LML Conference was very significant for the participants from Japan. Though most of us have handicaps with the language, we managed to get over this by using translating machines this time. The highlights were in the Conference Banquet held on the evening of 5th April. There was harmony everywhere. The Japanese, about thirty members, sang together 'The Yumida River' and 'Sakura'. We were moved by the music, and when all the members present made a large ring by joining our hands, moving round and round the hall. That was true harmony.

Toyoko Aisawa

The Netherlands

A conference about Student Centred Learning: When you have had the opportunity to participate in five group sessions, to listen to ten keynote speakers, to make a

THE WORLD EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP

AN APPEAL FROM THE CHAIRMAN OF WEF INTERNATIONAL

Dear Member,

The educational world is changing rapidly, both here and overseas.

At home, teachers and schools are having to cope with government inspired changes in the curriculum; all children are to be tested at regular intervals; resources for teachers to do their job are being squeezed. Similar pressures are felt in Australasia.

The peoples of Eastern Europe, freed from political tyranny, are thirsty for educational inspiration from the West. The WEF has received many requests for direct help. The people of the Third World are as much in need of basic educational provision as they ever were - and there are more of them.

The World Education Fellowship is in a unique position to help in all of these situations. Unique amongst educational pressure groups, the WEF covers all sectors and all subject disciplines. It believes in the intellectual, social and emotional development of all people, of all countries, of all ages.

The WEF has committed itself to making positive responses to the needs of the Third World and Eastern Europe. It is promoting ways of encouraging its values by encouraging good practice in teaching, everywhere.

To do its job the WEF needs two things: - more funds and more members.

Help us promote good education for all. Contribute to the Chairman's Fund by sending a cheque to the Treasurer. Send the Treasurer the names of any potential new member.

Finally, please can you arrange to covenant the WEF. This is an effective way of increasing our income without too much burden on our members. Write to the Treasurer for details. (complete the enclosed form and return to the Treasurer).

Thank you for your continuing support. The WEF has achieved much in its 70 years; there is still much more to do.

Your sincerely,

Professor John Stephenson, Chairman World Education Fellowship.

Treasurer's name and address is Frank Werth, Hon. Treasurer, World Education Fellowship, 14 Wavel Mews, London NW6 3AB.



DEED OF COVENANT

THE WORLD EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP

Full name in capitals

I.....

Address in capitals

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choice out of 25 follow-up sessions, 47 presentations and ten groups, to experience 3 sessions of a plenary workshop and of sector specific plenaries, and you could also enjoy some other arranged sessions, practical demonstrations, a river cruise and a nice reception by the RSA, other visits, a WEF general assembly and a delicious banquet, then you may say that you have attended a rich conference, but it is not possible to deliver a report on it unless you write a book about it. This is why I confine myself to some commentary on what I regarded as my best experiences: the LML Group Sessions, the Workshops, and the chance to meet and speak with people in my free time, especially during dinners and after.

I thank the conference organisers for giving us the possibility to begin the working-day by meeting other participants and talking with them in the LML Group, to exchange our ideas, thoughts and experiences, and to explore the major theme of the conference on theoretical, methodological and practical levels. I do not know how it was in other groups but in the meetings of the group I participated in, which were very well led by Polly Eckert from Australia, we learned a lot from each other, as one of the members said in our last session. I am sure that the meetings will also lead to continuing exchange in the future, and I would appreciate

organisers of new conferences creating the same opportunity, together with enough free time in the evening, to meet old friends and to get to know new ones.

I went to several presentations of papers and workshops, and most of them were interesting, but I will write only about one of them, *Drama and Student Autonomy*, by Karen Wylie and Sharon Robinson, together with Donna Brandes and Paul Ginnis, who also presented a workshop on *The Teacher's Role in Building Self-esteem and Group Support*. They were all from Birmingham Education Support Service, UK. I have chosen to comment on that workshop not only as an example, but also because it was such a high-level and affectionate presentation, that only have been experienced by two other participants. I think that what people like Karen and Sharon, and Donna and Paul, have to show and tell, also on the level of theory, methodology and methods, should be in reach of all participants of a conference. We really examined the structure of drama lessons as the subject of working together, and I experienced what student centred learning possibilities are created through such lessons, together with learning and an exchange about the methodological background. I hope that such presenters will be invited to write about their work and thinking. I am sure we will meet again to continue our

exchange of ideas and experiences.

I also liked the Conference Banquet, above all the artistic performances by people from different parts of the world. On Friday, when I left to go to the airport, I was very tired and satisfied. I like to finish my small report by expressing my appreciation to all the friends who made this conference possible. and especially my gratitude personally to Alla Weaver, Tony Weaver, Betty Adams, and Rosemary Crommelin.

Peter van Stapele

United States

I am pleased to make a statement of what the LML Conference has meant to me. Participants have come to the conference from many different backgrounds and understandings. These various points of view help to see learning from various perspectives. The sequencing of the programme and the topics were well thought out and executed by the Planning Committee. Of course, I gained more from some speakers than others; but in general they were outstanding. The opportunity to choose made my own learning more effective because I could select what I perceived would meet my needs and interests.

A school visit which was arranged, and the resources of London, rounded off a very useful and enjoyable experience for me.

Vernon L. Phelps

LEARNER MANAGED LEARNING IN KIBBUTZ TEACHER EDUCATION AT ORANIM, THE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION OF THE KIBBUTZ MOVEMENT

Yuval Dror

Abstract

Teacher education in Oranim, the School of Education of the Kibbutz Movement in Israel, is based on Socialist-Zionist content as well as instruction and learning which are progressive and non-formal. Many of these methods include Learner Managed Learning components. They will be presented in this article according to four main sections: The contents and L.M.L.; Instructional methods and materials and L.M.L.; The educational climate and L.M.L., and Integration into the social and educational system outside Oranim and L.M.L.

Introduction

Teacher education in Oranim is based on the main sources of Kibbutz Education which have been combined and adapted to the educational systems in Israel: Socialist-Zionist (and kibbutz) content as well as methods of instruction and learning which are progressive and non-formal, in line with the youth movement tradition.¹ In this article I discuss the utilization of the sources that, together, have both influenced and are still influencing the Learner Managed Learning (L.M.L.) of teacher training in Oranim. I shall discuss their effect on both elementary teacher training and that of high-school teachers.

The Contents and L.M.L.

Two main principles that guide teacher training at Oranim are balance and integration between the academic disciplines and the various educational areas - and interdisciplinary integration in both general and educational areas.² Fulfilment of these two principles depends on the learner undergoing teacher training himself. Great efforts have been made to find a balance between the quantity of content which makes up the various discipline study

programs and teacher training. In the university division, for example, where the training of high school teachers takes place, the students study education between six to eight hours per week each year for four years - the same as one of their two major areas of discipline. The principle of integration is carried out in the education area in courses given by those responsible for pedagogical mentoring, who approach the various practical tasks the students have to carry out from an integrative and educational point of view. In the College Division teacher training for elementary schools is aimed at preparing the general teacher but, there, specialization has begun because of the recent introduction of academization. In both divisions there are some integrated courses in ideological subjects on the kibbutz, the labour movement, co-existence between Jews and Arabs and so on.

The principle of ideological education is very important. In both divisions we believe in "Educational Teaching" - an old notion of kibbutz-labour movement education from the British Mandate period. Every student in Oranim has to study two courses - one on kibbutz and the other on kibbutz education and the various areas of study connected to Zionist-Socialist and kibbutz outlooks and their daily applications. There are also special frameworks for ideological subjects (like the seminar, the study session, the open forum with a central subject, the guest speaker), as additions (and sometimes alternatives) to regular studies. In these frameworks and other education studies the students encounter different non-doctrinaire and personal approaches to "moral education" with the emphasis, today, on "value clarification", "the just community" and so on, which have been developed in Oranim as subjects for study and curricula.³ In the

university division there are also special groups of students who learn by themselves and teach Socialist-Zionist content courses to youngsters by using these approaches. These young people are students and teachers at one and the same time, as well as formal and non-formal educators. The youth movement tradition is translated into modern non-formal methods through which the learner/teacher tries to find his own spiritual path in adolescence. Our twenty year old students guide high school youth through this difficult period.⁴

Instructional Methods and Materials and L.M.L.

Great emphasis is placed on education as the development of the student's personality (which we see as his main asset) - including team-work, both with pupils and peer-students. In both divisions there are workshops and education courses which deal with this through a combination of group processes and the personal and practical examination of major educational approaches. The pedagogical mentors deal with these issues in their courses and tutorials, after visits to various types of schools. The large amount of practical work in instruction the student experiences from the first year of studies in Oranim, develops the internalization of all these components and the student, hopefully, carries this into his practical teaching in the future.

Teacher training in Oranim introduces the student to different styles and skills of instruction and learning, taking into account the nature of his future work with pupils and his personal characteristics and development. The progressive approach is emphasized, not at the expense of academic studies, but as a continuation of them, with balance and integration of the formal and non-formal ways of study sought. Most of the education teachers use the system of "representative instruction" demonstrating the different styles and skills of instruction themselves, as a "model for imitation" for their students. We have developed

readily accessible teacher education centres for self-instruction in various subject areas (e.g. English as foreign language teaching), general elementary teaching, (Geography, natural sciences, etc.). The modern active approaches like "cooperative teaching" and "school-based curriculum development", which have been traditionally used in kibbutz education, are included in all the activities mentioned above.⁵

The Educational Climate and L.M.L.

A close relationship between the educator and the student is a basic principle of kibbutz education, and comes from both the worlds of progressive education and the youth-movements of the twenties. Informal relations between teachers, administrators and students in Oranim exist as an everyday thing and act as an example of what can exist in the future schools in which students will teach. The students are treated as real partners within the

"The progressive approach is emphasized, with balance and integration of the formal and non-formal ways of study sought."

institutions of Oranim, including having representation on disciplinary committees, taking part in decision making about general policy and curricula, and evaluating their teachers through formal and non-

formal feed-back processes which influence the teachers' advancement in Oranim.⁶

The principle of everyday assessment is practised by the students from both divisions from the first year, with emphasis placed upon both self-assessment and peer assessment. Because of this practice and the close relations existing between all educational partners in Oranim very useful Learner Managed Learning is made possible.

Integration into the Social and Educational System Outside Oranim and LML

Since its beginning, the kibbutz has tried to preserve its uniqueness - but also to influence its surroundings.

We are "The School of Education of the Kibbutz Movement" but half of the teachers and students are not kibbutz members. The ideological message of Oranim is clear, and its

connection to the labour-movement attracts pupils, but mainly teachers, who agree with the social and educational ideology of our institution. In spite of the problematic relationships between the kibbutzim and the development towns, and the Jews and Arabs, there are many students from both these populations and this involves Oranim in the kibbutz and general education systems. This enables every student to learn about his co-students in the Israeli society in a non-formal manner in regular every day relations at Oranim.

Within Oranim we have special units like: "The Institute for the Improvement of Teaching" (which deals with in-service teacher training and prepares curricula), and "The Institute for Research on Kibbutz Education"; these two serve both the kibbutz population and the northern part of Israel. These institutes are also utilized for teacher training purposes. In the elective

course program of the University Division there are personal projects in the field of education guided by both Oranim teachers and research scholars as well as mentors in the schools. Students may also elect to carry out a personal educational curriculum and research project in order to compare theory and reality in Learner Managed Learning according to the discovery approach. The students who have practical contact in the "field" with the curricula printed and the research done at Oranim learn about the education system in this way.

In the kibbutz sphere we maintain contact with the education departments of the kibbutz movements and the kibbutz schools and co-operate with them in many areas, including participating in policy-making bodies. Students visit elementary and secondary kibbutz schools, teach in them, and carry out personal projects and research including the introduction of Oranim curricula. In the general educational sphere we maintain contact with various types of schools, both in regard to the students' teaching experience and projects and through counselling given by Oranim teachers to those schools, affording the opportunity to carry out

educational experiments. Through these mutual relations Learner Managed formal and non-formal Learning are made accessible to both students and teachers in both the teacher training institution and the field of education. Some examples of this are: a) The elementary and high schools both in Tivon (Oranim's neighbouring town) and the nearby kibbutzim. b) The community school at "Misgav" in the Western Galilee, which has elementary and secondary pupils from many types of settlements. c) The moshav school at Kfar Yehoshua, which is an elementary and secondary school based upon the values of the labour movement. d) The Leo Baeck school, whose progressive view of Judaism is

compatible with the view the kibbutz movement has been developing for many years at Oranim. e) The Shomria and Harei-Ephraim boarding high-school institutions of Ha-Kibbutz Ha-Artzi who try

to develop discovery, career, communication and creativity skills in their pupils [according to Goodlad's suggestion in his famous research *A Place Called School* (1984)]⁷.

These are the channels of Zionist-Socialist Learner-Managed Learning activities in Oranim on the levels of both the student teacher and the pupils in the schools where educational experiments are tried. All these methods of instruction and learning are implemented in Oranim, the School of Education of the Kibbutz Movement as part and parcel of a specific educational view of teaching and society as a whole. In these ways the progressive roots of kibbutz education and those of the youth movement are translated in Oranim to every day Learner Managed formal and non-formal Learning.

Notes

1. See Kashti & Shalev, 1986.

2. In regard to 'balance' and integration in kibbutz education see Dror, 1987. For integration in teacher training as a whole see Shulman, 1986.

3. See, for example, Chazan (1985) and Hare (1987) who present specific models of moral education.

"Learner Managed formal and non-formal Learning are made accessible to both students and teachers."

4. Kahane (1988) deals with the special non-formal system, including its involvement with the formal. For the uniqueness of "adolescence" see Keniston, 1971.
5. In regard to co-operative Teaching see Sharan et al, 1980. For a collection of practical suggestions for school based curriculum development in Israel and England see Sabar et al., 1987. For the variety of teaching-learning methods which teacher training students need to acquire see Joyce and Weil, 1986.
6. For the general 'educational climate' see Anderson, 1982. For specifically Israeli schools, see for example, Inbar & Resh, 1983.
7. Goodlad's suggestion (1984) has been developed by Professor Adir Cohen from the School of Education of the University of Haifa.

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First Time at a WEF Conference

From the minute I arrived at reception, with a welcome handshake from John Stephenson and the warmest of smiles from Rosemary Crommelin, to the time I left on Friday after tea and ginger biscuits, I was intrigued, challenged, informed, amazed and entertained.

The accommodation was comfortable and warm, the food was delicious, and the help given by the organising committee was ever patient.

Learner Managed Learning brought together people from many walks of life, from Early Childhood teachers to a parasitologist. Many nationalities joined together to discuss their

understanding of LML, and significantly all participants managed their own learning by contracting with themselves what they hoped to learn. As a direct result of the plenary session with Betty Adams I will be returning to Tasmania with the idea of using the text from *Teachers' Own Records: A system promoting professional quality* (by Elizabeth Adams and Tyrrell Burgess) as a way of promoting teacher self-assessment.

After the parting handshake and hugs I was left with a feeling of great warmth and fellowship, and an inspiration to carry back to Tasmania the learning challenges that had been shared.

Patricia M.C.Adams, Tasmania

SOME PERSONAL REMARKS ON JAPANESE TRENDS AND ISSUES IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Toyoko Aisawa

Woman Powers

Sad to say, the words 'Learner Managed Learning' are not known to the Japanese although we are familiar with the words 'Adult Education' or 'Life-long Learning'. Since 1970 Japan's GNP has been rising and the nation's standard of living has been improved because we have had inner peace for 45 years without any civil war and our economic and scientific development has enabled us to make ourselves live longer and longer, more and more comfortably with the aid of many technologies. Particularly women, who were once busy bringing up children and died young because of poverty, lack of medical treatment, and many disadvantages, have become modernised and democratised. However, most of them do not know the real meaning of *self*.

Co-education has helped many women to learn individual freedom, liberation of one person from the domination of another, the importance of promoting world peace: consequently most women recognise their equality with men in many fields such as arts, literature, medical science, natural science, religion and so forth. However, most of the women in their fifties and sixties who have spent their life at home as housewives, bringing up children, and having no profession or any measures of living, are feeling keenly that they need to renew their culture by using the most modern media of radio, TV or by attending some culture centres.

Of course, men as well as women, feel they need to renew their cultural experiences but in many cases men are engaged in doing their work in the community, and the necessity is felt relatively less than that of women. The community itself will teach them through their work in their everyday life.

The younger generations know the ways to improve their culture and tradition as they have had their schooling democratically in the course

of their new education. Therefore, the problem is how the middle-aged women can get educated in their homes. They have lost their way of life; they have no means of getting income by working, as they are too old and 'inexperienced' and not able to find any significant voluntary work to do.

The Ministry of Education in Japan has begun a special department for life-long learning since 1989 to address this problem.

Enlightening University Graduates

As for myself, I graduated from Tokyo Women's Christian University in 1955. At that time most of us got married, and were busy bringing up children for several years. During those periods we had no time to read and think, even to read newspapers, after putting our children to bed. How we wished we had had some time to learn something once again!

1. Some Universities

In 1972 our university opened some classes for the graduates who managed to get some free time and who wanted to study further. Those classes are French, English and German literature classes, and science classes, where the instructors show the way to manipulate computers or word-processors. The cultural classes are the Bible Study Group, Chorus Group, and groups learning the tea-ceremony or flower arrangement.

Some other universities have started similar open classes for the community.

I joined the German Literature classes in 1980. At first I couldn't make out the textbook as it was too difficult for me. Now I'm obliged to stop my learning as I have to take care of my elderly mother, but the classes have grown up and more and more women attend the classes.

2. Culture Centres

These developments are most remarkable in the case of culture schools in and around Tokyo,

one of which is the Asahi Culture Centre in Shinjuku which has more than 1,200 classes and there are about 75,000 participants in them. 85 per cent of them are women over fifty.

Some newspaper presses have their culture centres around the large cities. They have professional lecturers.

3. Open Schools

Besides these culture centres, there are classes for the adult opened in the classrooms of the public high schools in Tokyo. About 70 senior high schools in Tokyo have open classes for the community around the schools. Typically, their courses are divided into three parts: culture and history, computers and word-processors, and hobbies and sports. Private schools cannot provide such activities for adults, as the government does not provide budgetary support for them. Even here, women are the majority of the learners, but recently some old men, retired from their work, participate in these classes too. They are enjoying their life with their groups, but I'm afraid they have hardly shown any concern to apply their study for social changes in the world.

The Future of LML

Here I quote the first stanza of Robert Browning's Rabbi Ben Ezra. It teaches many things about higher education.

Grow old along with me!

The best is yet to be,

The last of life for which the first was made:

Our times are in His hands

Who saith, "A whole I planned,

Youth shows but half;

Trust God:

See all nor be afraid!"

The economy and scientific technology have made a remarkable progress during these few decades but that does not mean the Japanese are modernised and established as *selves*. Their minds are still in the condition of the developing countries, and internationalisation, in a true sense, has not developed in Japan.

The Unesco declaration of the 'Rights to Learn' adopted at the Paris conference is now more than ever a major challenge for the humanity of the Japanese.

1. The right to question and analyse;

2. The right to imagine and create;

3. The right to read one's own world and to write history;

4. The right to have access to educational resources;

5. The right to develop individual and collective skills.

When I think of the Japanese in general, I can hardly believe that they are rich in imagination and creativity, that they can read their own world and write history and that they have developed their individuality fully.

It is true that the Japanese are harmonious and peace loving people, but most of them are never imaginative nor creative, though there are some exceptions. Most of the Japanese do not know what individuality is. Individuality develops when the person recognises God. The Japanese have followed Western science and technology without recognising their inner spirits. Most of them never stand in front of God face to face. That is why there are very few Christians in Japan. Only one percent of them are said to be Christians and I think individuality hardly develops in such a country.

To pursue one's own happiness is the ideal of most of the Japanese, and volunteers who will to serve the community are very few.

I conclude these brief remarks by drawing attention to some issues in higher education in Japan.

1. Most learning and studies are done in groups, not by individuals.

2. Most learning and studies are done by women over fifty, hardly at all by men.

3. Most learning and studies are done for their own sake, not for the community's.

My suggestion for future developments would be to shift towards better practices, toward self-study, toward co-educational study, and toward study for the benefit of the whole world. There are about 3,800,000,000 people in this world and only 700,000,000 of them are satisfied with their life. The rest of them are now starving and in poverty. We should have the eye to look at this reality by learning and practising something for these people.

Mrs. Toyoko Aisawa is Secretary of the WEF Japanese Section

TEACHING CREATIVE RESPONSES TO CONFLICT

Tom Leimdorfer

Abstract

Conflict is an inevitable part of life, yet schools and society in general pay scant attention to teaching young people how to handle conflict. The article outlines some principles which are fundamental to schemes for encouraging a problem-solving approach to conflict resolution and mediation. The underlying philosophy and basic framework of such schemes is the same for all levels of conflict in the home, school, workplace or society at large and applicable to adults and children alike.

Introduction

A study published by the Council for Cultural Co-operation, Council of Europe entitled *Violence and Conflict Resolution in Schools* (1989) contains a number of recommendations including the following: The teaching of nonviolent conflict resolution should be integrated into specific subject or project areas which are clearly designated and capable of being monitored. Education authorities should sponsor in-service training courses for teachers in understanding and using problem-solving techniques in classroom management and personal relation with pupils, and provide appropriate teaching aids.

The implementation of such recommendations has not been a high priority within the National Curriculum and it remains to be seen whether any of the cross-curricular themes under consideration will touch on the topic of conflict. The government has a schizophrenic attitude toward this subject. On the one hand there is widespread concern about increasing violence in society (bullying in schools, football hooliganism, rise in violent crime in the cities etc.) coupled with the feeling that schools are failing to address this problem. On the other hand, any programme which smacks of the hotly debated 'peace education' is strongly opposed. In the special case of Northern Ireland, however,

there is singleminded support for schemes under the umbrella term of Education for Mutual Understanding which now forms part of the compulsory curriculum.

While most peace education schemes of the early eighties have withered in the face of right-wing opposition, there is now renewed interest in learning and teaching skills of conflict resolution and mediation both within the formal sector of education and outside. Community mediation schemes have mushroomed under the auspices of FIRM (Forum for Initiatives for Reparation and Mediation). The Kingston Friends Workshop Group have several years' experience of running conflict resolution workshops for both teachers and pupils and the Kingston Polytechnic Department of Education has pioneered an in-service training course in conflict resolution and mediation skills. The Council of Europe study gives an overview of similar projects on the continent and the writer and Sue Bowers (one of the founders of the Kingston group) have recently led a series of workshops on this topic for teachers, teacher trainers, educational psychologists and researchers in Moscow.

Starting points

Conflict is a part of life, a necessary result of the varying needs, aims and perspectives of individuals and communities. It is part of our daily experience, both directly and through the media. The ethos of the home, school or workplace will provide some rules (spoken and unspoken) for handling conflict situations. However, these often contradict each other and the pressures from friends and peer groups can work against the 'official' ways of handling conflict. Society educates young people at best haphazardly and at worst quite destructively as far as conflict is concerned. From an early age, people are led to think that conflicts should be settled by someone in authority: the parent, the

teacher, the headteacher, the gangleader, the policeman, the judge, the boss. If there is nobody to arbitrate, then the 'strongest' will 'win' and the 'weaker' will 'lose'. Little encouragement has been given to young people to take responsibility for resolving conflicts, to look for 'win-win' solutions. Yet the way in which they learn to respond to conflict will have a pervasive effect both on the quality of their personal lives and on the prospects for society as a whole.

To any situation of conflict we bring our own past experiences, good and bad. We all find ourselves dealing with conflicts at some level on a daily basis and have each evolved varying strategies which enable us to cope. A starting point for thinking about creative responses to conflict is making ourselves conscious of the skills that we have already developed by identifying a couple of specific conflict situation and asking:- What was the conflict about? What factors were helping towards a successful outcome and what factors were hindering?

By becoming aware of the skills we already have and use successfully we are more likely to be able to respond to conflict situations in a constructive way. To any new situation we also bring an emotional baggage from the past. Some of this may be helpful but some may not. We all have triggers which cause alarm bells to ring, flashpoints of anger, loss of control. Certain types of people, phrases, gestures or situations make us less able to cope. If we can become conscious of what they are, we are less likely to be caught unawares and more likely to be able to choose how we respond and to create the atmosphere in which others can also respond creatively to the problem.

Basic skills and attitudes

Successful conflict resolution, is essentially a problem solving exercise. It cannot, however, be approached as if it were an academic problem because it relies on personal relationships, feelings, hopes and fears. The building of self-esteem and trust are essential pre-requisites.

The fundamental skills and attitudes can be grouped under three main headings: affirmation, communication and co-operation. We can use the visual image of the iceberg to illustrate this:



Affirmation - of one's own intrinsic personal value and that of other people (irrespective of merit or of how you feel about their views or actions).

Communication - ability to communicate one's own viewpoint and feelings clearly and asserting them without aggression which denies the right of others; listening attentively and non-judgementally.

Co-operation - being able to work with others on shared tasks to achieve a common goal.

Additional skills linked with successful conflict resolution are:

"What was the conflict about? What factors were helping towards a successful outcome?"

Imagination and creative thinking - looking at new approaches and a variety of perspectives, envisioning positive outcomes.

Analysis and critical thinking - approaching problems and evaluating situations with an open mind; analysing the roots of conflict, being willing to change one's opinions in the face of new evidence ('Think it possible that you may be mistaken'); recognizing bias, propaganda.

Empathy - imagining sensitively the viewpoints of other people, particularly those of the opposite sex, other races and cultures, those whose experience and situation differ from ours.

Ecological awareness - a sense of respect and responsibility for the natural environment, an appreciation of our place in the web of life.

Commitment to justice - a respect for genuinely democratic principles and a recognition that any form of positive or negative discrimination must always be justified with carefully argued relevant reasons.

Steps towards solutions

Few problems between individuals or groups are resolved at one stroke. Successful conflict resolution therefore usually involves a cycle of problem definition, analysis, action and evaluation. With each cycle we hope to build more understanding, trust and empathy between the parties involved and generate more possibilities for agreement.

It is important to recognize that there are close links between the different levels of conflict. The inner conflicts within individuals affect the conflicts between individuals and vice versa. Both these can affect and are affected by conflicts within organisations, conflicts between community and ethnic groups, which in turn affect and are affected by national and international conflicts. In any particular conflict situation, we should identify the sources of conflict at all these levels before we can

form policies for engaging in effective conflict resolution, choosing the appropriate skills and attitudes for the process. We also need to evaluate these strategies so that they can be continuously refined to meet changing needs.

In practice, we can normally reduce the essential elements of the conflict resolution process to four questions:

What happened? What is the problem? At this stage it is important to try to state the facts in such a way that everyone can agree with the definition of the problem. Feelings and value judgements must be separated from facts.

How do you feel about it? is the question that should then be addressed to each person concerned. They should be encouraged to respond with statements which are 'I messages' ie. admissions of feelings rather than accusations. ('I feel upset because...' rather than 'you/he/she/they are' etc.)

What would you like to happen? Ideally, if you could have your wish what would you really like to happen in this situation?

What could you actually do? Many of the suggestions made in answer to the previous question may be impossible to carry out or may be unacceptable to all parties concerned. Once everyone's feelings and needs are known, we

can engage on a co-operative exercise to seek practical action steps, no matter how small, which will help to dispel mistrust and bring about reconciliation.

The aim is to find courses of action which modify attitudes and behaviour so as to turn a destructive conflict into a constructive one. Conflict is destructive when it diverts energy from more important activities/issues destroys morale, causes stress reinforces poor self-image, polarizes groups and hardens attitudes within those groups, deepens differences in values, produces irresponsible behaviour or violence. Conflict is constructive when it opens up issues of importance, results in encountering real problems and increases the involvement of

individuals in problem solving, causes authentic communication to occur, releases pent-up emotion and anxiety, helps recognition of interdependence and builds

cohesiveness while helping individuals to grow personally and apply what has been learnt

***"Conflict is constructive
when it opens up issues of
importance."***

Teaching conflict resolution in schools

Conflict resolution can only be taught through the skills and processes involved. There are now several manuals which can help teachers to become familiar with the activities aimed at fostering the basic skills. The traditional school curriculum does not give time for such process-centred activities, but they can be introduced in any learning situation. These processes can be used in order to create a more co-operative atmosphere in the classroom and to identify agreed action steps when there is a conflict between individuals or when controversial issues arise in the community. In teaching subjects like geography, history, literature and drama, simulation exercises and role-play involving conflict resolution techniques can give a deeper understanding of issues.

Conflict resolution exercises work best when the subject of the conflict is either directly experienced by the participants or close enough to their real-life situation for them to have some understanding of what it feels like to be directly involved. This aspect highlights the strength of

fostering the skills involved in conflict resolution in that it is 'for real'. It is not a sterile piece of 'school knowledge' to be learnt for an examination. The experience of learning the techniques involved can actually be used to release tensions within a class, conflicts between staff and pupils, conflicts within the staffroom.

Education for peace and justice has two aspects, the experiential and the cognitive. Children who grow up with a secure sense of identity and worth, who can listen empathetically and express their feelings, learn a co-operative assertiveness which works by establishing a balance rather than by learning to dominate. These children are the natural bridge builders and problem solvers. As they grow older and the focus shifts from personal experience to the wider world, intellectual skills play a greater part. Increasing awareness of social injustice may bring the need for decisions about when co-operation has to give way to challenge and opposition. Work for social change requires a balance between bridge-building and protest and requires sensitivity to ways of handling the conflict that is inherent in this process.

The system of formal education is at a crossroads in this country and there are unique opportunities as well as dangers. Education which enables young people and adults to look at conflict situations in a fresh light - as potential growing points rather than inevitably negative experiences which diminish those involved in the conflict - must have relevance at all levels in and out of school. It is based on the assumption that education must be experiential, on-going and an integral part of life.

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TOWARDS THE TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY WITH UNESCO

Rex Andrews

‘What do you get when you cross an elephant with a millipede?’ The answer - You’ve guessed? - ‘Unesco!’ A huge and weighty organism propelled by a thousand fragile limbs. At least that is what it seems like when you attend a General Conference of this vital, yet unfairly much-maligned, organization. The sheer weight of its responsibility seems too much to bear for the diversity of human beings carrying it forward into the twenty first century. This time, however, all the limbs appear to be moving in the same direction. Representatives of 161 countries, the Paris based executive and other headquarters staff, Non-governmental Organizations and educational, scientific and cultural experts of every clime and persuasion meet at Unesco to sink their differences in the pursuit of one prime object: to promote peaceful cooperation in our increasingly complex global village.

If the elephant was threatened with extinction by the controversial departure of the USA, the UK and Singapore some five years ago, the millipede’s capacity to sprout new limbs has brought three new members - Djibouti, the Cook Islands and Kiribati - to replace them. Admittedly, these new countries have less economic clout than their predecessors, but in the warmer climate of ‘perestroika’ and ‘glasnost’ maybe enthusiasm counts for more than reluctant dollars. Having said that, significant changes in the organization and orientation of Unesco, under the management of its new Director General, Frederico Mayor, have now opened the way for the return of the three missing states when they are ready to acknowledge the value of sharing in Unesco’s important enterprises.

Unesco’s new watchword - ‘Do less in order to do better’ - was warmly welcomed by the Conference. To meet its heavy responsibilities despite financial stringencies the organization is concentrating on fewer, but more carefully

focused projects, and decentralizing much of its activity by the fuller involvement of NGO’s and other agencies in the field to improve efficiency. The three main challenges of the 1990’s are summed up in the Introduction to the Third Medium Term Plan as development, the protection of the environment, and peace; and the Conference accordingly approved seven Major Programmes for the period 1990-1995.

Before outlining each of these programmes in turn, it is important to mention two ‘Transverse Themes’ that cut across and permeate all of them, namely: Women and Youth. Successful future development is seen to depend upon improving the status of women and promoting their equal right universally to education. Efforts will be made across the board to increase the participation of women in communication, cultural activity and scientific and technological development. There is also a concern to examine and reduce the violence to which many women are subjected in both ‘developing’ and ‘developed’ countries. Similarly efforts to tackle the problems of youth will be coupled with encouragement for them also to take a more active role in development. The future depends upon harnessing the enthusiasm and energy of young people, many of whom are at present caught in a trap of unemployment and a struggle for survival against poverty. Their frustration and marginalisation all too often cause young people to seek escape through drug abuse and delinquency - a waste of resource that society can ill afford.

A ‘Mobilizing Project’ underpinning all Major Programme Areas is the campaign to combat illiteracy, in which women and youth also feature prominently. In many countries conflict, natural disasters, economic cuts and balance of payment problems have brought primary education to a low ebb. Some 100 million or more children between the ages of 6 and 11 are currently not enrolled in school, and many others

are getting inadequate primary education leading to a high 'drop-out' rate and subsequent adult illiteracy. The total number of illiterates today is estimated at 869 million - some 38 per cent of the world population. 98 per cent of these are in developing countries, and nearly two thirds of these are women who had no or little access to primary schooling when they were girls. Furthermore,

'...in developed countries, where primary education is universal and most children also receive secondary education, there are an estimated 20 million illiterate adults and possibly an even larger number of adults who are functionally illiterate, i.e. with a level of literacy which is inadequate for coping with the demands of the increasingly complex societies in which they live. (*Third Medium Term Plan (1990-1995)*, 1990, p.25)

Although the majority of illiterates are in rural areas the problem is clearly one which affects all nations, rich and poor alike, and which it is our common interest to eradicate. Accordingly 1990 has been designated 'International Literacy Year', and Unesco's ambitious plan is to work for universal literacy by the year 2000. The process involves informing public opinion, strengthening regional programmes and stimulating national initiatives in the first place, then assisting Member States, especially in the least developed countries, and mobilizing international resources for teacher training and appropriate supplies, and in the third phase conducting a mid-term assessment to gauge progress and redirect efforts where necessary. At the point of delivery it is recognized that the mother tongue is the most appropriate and effective medium for acquiring literacy.

Unesco's Major Programme Areas (1990-1995)

I. Education and the Future

This programme is addressed to the question: 'What education should be provided today in

order to prepare the young for life in the 21st century?' bearing in mind the increasing complexity of life, the knowledge explosion, the pace of change, economic constraints and a deteriorating environment. Its first aim is to promote the provision of high quality basic education, relevant both to the world of the child and to the world of employment, and a source of enrichment of the quality of life. Too much current education is out-of-date and elitist, and more needs to be done to enable the learner 'to access and process information and develop...critical and creative thinking'.(p.34) Thomas Keller (Deputy Director General of Unesco) has pointed out that, 'international aid organizations have spent 500 times more on a student in higher education than on a primary school pupil or an adult learning to read and write.' While acknowledging the need for advanced studies, this degree of inequality is

"...in developed countries, where primary education is universal and most children also receive secondary education, there are an estimated 20 million illiterate adults."

unacceptable, and even unproductive, since literacy, including functional literacy is the acknowledged first step in mobilizing resources for development. The Conference spokesman for Costa Rica spoke of the importance of creating 'a passion for learning', thus forming the

basis for continuing education throughout life.

While Unesco will promote projects for continuing education after school at one end of the scale, it will also be helping with projects supporting the child's learning and development within the family environment at the other, since learning begins before schooling. It will also seek to take account of the role of education within the environment as a whole, alerting learners at appropriate stages to social problems such as drug-abuse and AIDS and economic problems such as pollution and the dangers of a deteriorating ozone layer. All of this presupposes an adequate supply of well trained personnel, and so Unesco is concerned to raise the status, rates of pay and working conditions of teachers by alerting public opinion as to their importance.

II. Science for Progress and the Environment

We can no longer be content with the notion: 'When science has discovered something more we shall all be happier than we were before...'

The dark side of science and technology and economic development is now as evident as its positive potentialities. Desertification, deforestation, acid rain, freshwater pollution, the dumping of industrial waste, oil spills, chemical plant hazards, toxic waste, the arms race and an endangered ozone layer are just some of the dangers challenging our capacity for genuine scientific progress. We are still far from complete understanding of the earth's ecosystems, and we have yet much to learn about coping with the more obvious phenomena of natural disasters: floods, cyclones, earthquakes and so on. While many developing countries are hungry for industrial development to raise their standard of living, so-called 'developed' countries are suffering from the ravages of urban blight, paralysis of road transport, nuclear leaks and innumerable other ills following in the wake of industrialization.

The problem facing us all, and Unesco as an interdisciplinary scientific 'clearing house', is how to get the right balance and make rational use of the world's resources without further endangering the environment. In short, how to achieve *sustainable development*. Major Programme II, in its dedication to this end will promote scientific and technical exchanges with a particular emphasis on support for developing countries. In addition to the exchange of information and the training of specialists, the establishment of museums and appropriate regional infrastructures should help to build a firm basis for future management of natural resources, including of course an increasing use of renewable resources, such as solar power and wind power.

The Kenyan delegate to the Conference stressed 'the moral responsibility of each generation to leave the world in a better state to its descendants'; and the delegate from Bhutan

pointed out that, in themselves: 'Science and technological know-how are not enough to protect the environment. There are values which transcend material preoccupations. In this respect traditional societies have an innate respect for nature with which they have always coexisted.'

Modern societies must also learn to coexist with their environment rather than dominate it. Unesco's Major Programme II adopts this approach, and affirms also the need for scientific and technological development to take account of human values, 'respecting the specificities of countries and people' and working with their full involvement and participation.

III. Culture: Past, Present and Future

This programme aims to 'arouse awareness of the fundamental importance of culture in the lives of human beings and societies and the fruitful interactions that bind culture to development' (p.77). It recognizes several somewhat paradoxical trends: '(1) a move towards a single universal culture (resulting from accelerated transport and communication), (2) a growing reaffirmation of specific cultural identities (as societies seek security in their roots), (3) an exaggerated development of the preceding, resulting in xenophobia and prejudice, and (4) the development of multicultural societies, which make the affirmation of cultural identity more complex though at the same time enriching it.' (p.79)

Unesco's aim is to accentuate the positive aspects of cultural identity and achievement 'promoting cultural exchanges and the mutual appreciation of cultures', encouraging and commissioning the writing of history with a view to 'a better understanding of the evolution of cultures, social changes and the multiplicity of modes of development', and 'contributing to the affirmation and enrichment of cultural identities' (by comparative studies, subregional festivals and so on). It will seek to encourage regional creativity among writers, artists and craftsmen and craftswomen in various media, to

*"People need reference to a
'storehouse of experience'
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world."*

preserve oral traditions in otherwise vanishing cultures, and to involve women and youth more fully in all of these activities. The symbolic value of culture in relation to identity and development is recognized: people need reference to a 'storehouse of experience' in order to orient themselves in a complex world.

Three major projects are included in the programme: (1) the *Integral Study of the Silk Roads*, begun in 1987, which will encourage new thinking on relations between East and West; (2) Commemoration of the 500th Anniversary of the Encounter Between Two Worlds, which will highlight the role of many different civilizations in the meeting of Europe and America in 1492 and its historical repercussions, and (3) the *Revival of the Library of Alexandria*.

IV. Communication in the Service of Humanity

A former somewhat contentious Unesco programme - 'The International Programme for the Development of Communication' (calling for a new world information and communication order, 1985) - was one of the main issues causing the USA, the UK and Singapore to withdraw from the organization. A wise revision of this programme of the 25th General Conference opens the way for their return. The problem arose from the efforts of Unesco to give a more balanced hearing to news flowing from Third World countries. Since the more advanced technologies of communication were largely in the hands of developed countries, these had the capacity to monopolize the distribution of news and information. News from developing countries was thus potentially subject to inaccuracy and distortion. The programme adopted by consensus at Unesco sought to remedy this disparity. However, (as expressed in the new Third Medium Term Programme, p.100) 'Professional communicators widely interpreted Unesco's actions as a more or less avowed ambition on the part of the Organization to undermine freedom

of information and impede the free flow of messages, individuals and ideas: this resulted in a misunderstanding that was used to tarnish the Organization's image.'

In the new programme, item (b) below is one of the important modifications in the new formulation. Unesco now seeks: (a) to encourage 'the free flow of information at international as well as national levels'; (b) to promote 'the wider and better dissemination of information, without any obstacle to the freedom of expression'; (c) to strengthen 'communication capacities in the developing countries in order to increase their participation in the communication process'; and (d) to advance 'the mutual knowledge and understanding of peoples through all means of mass communication and to that end recommend such international agreements as may be necessary to promote the free flow of ideas by word and image.' (p.102)

Another important addition is the emphasis on 'the development of critical awareness, the ability to react to any kind of information received and the education of users to defend their rights'. (p.103) Thus the new programme

"The new programme achieves the objectives of solidarity and a free flow of information without any suggestion of gagging the press."

achieves the objectives of solidarity and a free flow of information without any suggestion of gagging the press or audiovisual media. The aim is to empower the user (listener, viewer or reader) to cope with distortion. This, of course,

doesn't solve all the problems, since we can only criticise *what* receive, and only with the resources of comparison, etc., at our disposal. But it is a step in the right direction particularly as developing countries will be helped to improve their communication technology infrastructures. Moreover (a reflection of 'Glasnost'?) 'a two-way flow of information between and within countries, in an open and sustained dialogue' is to be encouraged, as will informational 'pluralism'. If progress in this area can really be achieved it could help to reduce the dangerous incidence of dogmatism and fanaticism, and issues like the Salman Rushdie

affair would cease to get out of proportion. When 'freedom of expression' is countered and matched by 'critical awareness' the reader no longer feels at the mercy of another's ideas and can defend his own ideas by reason rather than threats of violence. Before leaving the 'Communication in the Service of Humanity' programme it should be mentioned that it also aims to link up with development issues and the promotion of literacy since 'specific design strategies for development-oriented programmes and campaigns (e.g. literacy, lifelong education, population, rural development and preventive education) will be considered'.(p.110)

V. Social and Human Sciences in a Changing World

This programme is dedicated to the study of the problems posed by the accelerated pace of change to the social and economic life of societies. Cultural identities and individual and group behaviour patterns are disturbed by a fluctuating environment, and there is an uneasy tension 'between preservation of the diversity and specificity of national identities and the need for responsiveness to universal values and external inputs'.(p.123). Moreover, the current changes are marked by steadily increasing disparity between rich and poor both within and between societies and nations. '90 per cent of the world's scientific and technological potential is in the hands of 10 per cent of the world's population', (p.20) and in the richer countries approximately ten times more (i.e. 2 to 3 per cent) of their gross national product is spent on research and development (p.53) than is spent by their poorer counterparts. The effect of this is to accentuate further the inequalities between industrial and developing countries.

Unesco's social and human sciences programme seeks, as far as its capabilities allow, to narrow this gap. Under the terms of its ethical and intellectual vocation it aims to promote a juster world by the sharing of insights and expertise for the benefit of the most vulnerable and destitute, whether these are the poorer

inhabitants of developing countries or of the inner cities of developed countries. The programme will promote analytical research into social problems such as changing family patterns, the results of an ageing population, mass migration, urbanization, (and its frequent accompaniments marginalization and alienation), the status of women, and so on. Comparative philosophy will also be encouraged: analysis of the values of different societies with a view to establishing universally recognizable ethical standards based on 'tolerance, solidarity, respect and openness to others'.

VI. Unesco's contribution to Prospective Studies and to Strategies Concerned with Development

The sixth major programme has somewhat similar aims to the fifth, but the means are different. Analytical studies in this programme are extrapolated into future studies.

Interdisciplinary data taking account of the dynamic interactions between science and technology, education, culture and communication will aim to set up an 'early warning system' to help future policy planners.

Whereas hasty modernization, disregarding complex social and environmental factors, can have disastrous results, it has been shown that the preparation of 'future development scenarios' can help to 'alert governments to structural changes and major discontinuities in society as a result, for example, of modifications in technology and employment patterns or of environmental hazards.'(p.143)

Long-term *sustainable* development is again the watchword, and the quest for economic growth should therefore not be paramount, but subject to 'the democratization of development processes through respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms',(p.144) since (to use E.F.Schumacher's famous phrase) 'technology with a human face' is in the long-term generally more successful, as well as more humane. The principle is well illustrated by the approach

"The greatest disaster is the instant expert."

adopted by the American architect, John Benyon (Principal Architect of Unesco) when he sets out to advise on the construction of disaster resistant buildings in various vulnerable parts of the world: 'My first approach is to listen and learn from the people. During the first week you forget everything you know and look at the problem through their eyes and skills and then you try to improve on this. The greatest disaster is the instant expert.'

VII. Peace, Human Rights and the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination

Participants at the 25th General Conference could not have dared to guess that between the Conference itself and the publication of the resultant *Third Medium Term Plan*, less than three months later, Nelson Mandela would be freed. But campaigning for his release from detention by the South African authorities was one of the elements in this programme. It had also been agreed at the Conference to establish a Nelson Mandela Prize to be awarded annually to individuals or organizations 'whose action against Apartheid has been particularly noteworthy.' (p.160) The Programme affirmed that 'Apartheid is not reformable: it must be abolished'. A variety of projects included under this head involve both educating the international public about the ills and injustices of Apartheid and positive consideration and support for the means of replacing it by a just and democratic system, reconciling, as far as possible, the diverse elements of South African society. The programme is also, of course, concerned with human rights issues in other parts of the world.

On the issue of peace, the Programme cites Unesco's key maxim: 'Since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defences of peace must be constructed', and reiterates Unesco's continuing commitment to the 1974 'Recommendation concerning Education for International Understanding,

Cooperation and Peace and Education relating to Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms'. The programme will seek to promote the Seville Statement on Violence adopted by a number of eminent scientists which reminds us that 'violence and war are not a genetic fate to which humankind is irrevocably bound'.(p.14) Humankind (despite frequent appearances to the contrary) is equally free to pursue the dynamic harmonious relations which create peace.

The Programme makes encouraging reference to the fact that 'at the close of the 1980s we are witnessing a revival of the spirit of cooperation and a scaling down of the conflicts between nations...'.(p.153) Positive proof of at least one aspect of this was welcomed when the Berlin Wall was opened just towards the end of the General Conference.

In the foregoing I have tried to indicate the main lines of Unesco's current plans. But it is impossible, of course, to do justice to either the 25th General Conference or the Medium Term Plan in a brief article. Readers who want to know more are referred to the Plan itself. Unesco also has a wide range of publications, including regular *Newsletters*, the informative monthly *Unesco Sources*, and the excellent monthly *Unesco Courier*, recent issues of which are models of superb presentation and global interest. Further information about these and other Unesco publications and services can be obtained from the Public Relations Department, Unesco, 7 Place de Fontenoy, 75700 Paris, France.

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REVIEW

A Contributive Society

by J.R. Bellerby, 2nd Edition,
Education Services, Oxford, 1988.

"Greed is good", was the self-satisfied slogan of the eighties. If the nineties is to have a slogan as simple and as memorable, we can only hope that it is the central theme of this book: "Altruism is better". In a book which is, in every sense of the word, utopian, Bellerby describes the workings of a society in which the primary motivation is the desire to contribute as much to the common good as possible.

The justification of the idea that greed is good centred on the fact that an individual who wanted to earn more would be obliged to contribute more. Even in the jungles of the money markets, greed stimulates leanness, fitness and efficiency. Everybody who grabs for themselves is making a contribution to the common good. The other side of this coin is that unthinking altruism is debilitating for society: the philanthropist who gives away everything also gives away his or her power to do good. The refreshing quality of Bellerby's writing is that he does not skim over these difficult nuances. He is not dismissive of the idea that 'enlightened self interest' is the principal motivation in the world as we know it today. Indeed, a good deal of his text is devoted to exploring this source of societal energy. His considered evaluation produces a book which is, before anything else, human in scale.

First published in 1931, Bellerby's original book is reproduced here with additional material in the form of review articles. Although I had never come across *A Contributive Society* before, it seems to me to have many of the vices and virtues of an old friend. Bellerby, whose title is constructively ambiguous, describes both a contributive society, in the sense of an association of like thinking individuals, and a contributive society in the sense of a broader economic order for society in general. The main evaluation of institutions is to be in terms of how much is contributed to the good of all people, and various institutions and practices are explored in those terms. When he deals with the education such a society would require, Bellerby arrives at conclusions, and refers to sources, which will be familiar to members of the WEF. So much for the virtues of familiarity and congeniality.

The principle vice of the book is the lack of a sharp cutting edge. In the last sixty years a great deal has happened. Economics has moved on to explore many of the issues which Bellerby set out, and conceptual

frameworks have been developed which facilitate the study of mixed motivation. In particular, when it comes to the conflict between the pursuit of individual and collective benefits, there have been remarkable, and paradoxical, developments since 1931. Against that background, Bellerby's exploration of people's 'true' motivation seems naive, and in many ways irrelevant. In his desire to follow the Golden Mean, and in his conclusions, he shows his attachment to a tradition which is still more classical.

At other points, Bellerby has a freshness and relevance which speak directly to today. "Communism is essentially a spiritual ideal, and could only be made effective through universal altruism... It is to be hoped that in the process of reaction, which must follow any grant of individual freedom, the country will not be swung too far towards the opposite extreme, and that a position of stability may finally emerge in which Russian institutions will represent in some respect an advance on those of other countries".

The fact that this book is very obviously of the nineties in some respects does produce a difficulty: should one read it as a contemporary, modern book, or as a period piece. As a period piece, it is of course fascinating. But it is more. As a modern book, it lacks a number of insights which the last sixty years could have provided. It is hardly fair, however, to blame Bellerby for that.

Had *A Contributive Society* been bound with essays which were more critical, less indulgent towards the original work, I think a better volume would have been produced. I have no doubt at all that the first edition would have still flourished in more robust company.

The measure of the book is its human feeling. Although primarily a book about economics, it is abundantly clear that the quality of human interaction is all important. I close with a quotation which deals with the place of religion in the curriculum, but might not be out of place in any discussion of which subjects should, or should not, be included in curriculum:

"It can make little difference whether the religion is formally included or not; for if the teacher has no religion he will convey nothing, except a little history, even though the subject be included; if he has religion it will escape from him and have its effect with or without the actual lesson".

David Turner

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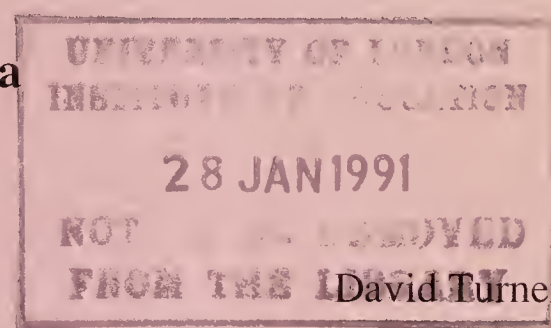
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Education in a National Setting

In this issue are a number of articles which address the question of producing an educational experience which is responsive to the needs of the individual child, within a framework of a national system of education. National curricula restrict the freedom of the child and the teacher at the classroom level in different ways. In the UK, we have become concerned over the way in which a national curriculum will limit the experiences of the child. Much the same concerns arise in the Netherlands, where, as Johan van Bruggen explains, the freedom of the school is protected on ideological and religious grounds. Recent developments address many of the same problems as have arisen in the UK, and there are similarities in the remedies as well, as van Bruggen explains.

Constraints on teachers and parents may not be limited to statutory requirements, and Professor Hiroko Fukuda presents some of the ways in which deeply held cultural assumptions can also shape educational systems without our knowing about it. His description of the way forward in Japan offers some interesting insights into what it means to grow up and learn to be a person.

Similar questions are addressed from a different angle by Brenda Lawrence, who looks at the way in which shyness can develop, and be alleviated. These are questions which affect all children in their development in one degree or another. Peter van Stapele also looks at the development of education within a universal framework, starting from that which is central to all education, namely the interpretation of systems of symbols.

We are blessed to live in interesting times, and it is difficult to look at national systems of education without reflecting on those changes in Europe which have, and will have, such sweeping implications for national curricula. Eastern Europe has been transformed by political events; the countries of Eastern Europe need no longer be rigidly linked to the educational system of the Soviet Union, and

truly national systems can be expected to emerge. Even within the Soviet Union changes are taking place, as Pam Poppleton and her colleagues report. Major changes may yet be on their way, but at least one national system of education has disappeared completely.

For obvious reasons, the German speaking section of WEF is very much involved in these developments, and is playing a leading role within the European Forum for Freedom in Education. The Forum, in line with a tradition which is at least as old as the WEF, and the NEF before that, aims to spread good educational practice by publicising the best of current practice. The Forum has already held a number of meetings, and among its future plans is the collaboration with the New Era in Education to produce a special issue of the journal which will be translated and circulated in several European countries.

There is a terrible danger when one looks at a goal such as that of spreading good educational practice by publicising current practice, and that is that it will be assumed that good educational practice will follow strong economic practices and stable political processes. In short, it will be all too easy to assume that the time has now come for the east to learn from the west. If we make that mistake we will miss many important lessons, but one, I think, more than others, and that is a considerable optimism about what can be achieved by putting children in a positive environment.

In a recent lecture, the Secretary General of Unesco, Federico Mayor, pointed up the limited use Western Europe had made of the great opportunities presented by the opening up of Eastern Europe: "They wanted freedom, and we offered them the free market". In education the Eastern Europeans may be offering us something quite as valuable as freedom. I hope that we have the wisdom to learn.

David Turner

Japan Looks Ahead

Hiroko Fukuda

Abstract

Japan has achieved remarkable advances in its education system, but most people consider that there are many problems still to be solved. Basically, the problems are the consequence of the mixing of the two cultures, the traditional and the Western, which took place one hundred years ago. The education system of Japan is apparently westernised, but the aim and methods are still different. After giving a historical sketch of Japan, and an outline of its education, the important role of mothers in rearing children is discussed.

Historical Introduction

"Those who cannot feel the littleness of great things in themselves are apt to overlook the greatness of little things in others. The average Westerner, in his sleek complacency, will see in the tea ceremony but another instance of the thousand and one oddities which constitute the quaintness and childishness of the East to him. He was wont to regard Japan as barbarous while she indulged in the gentle arts of peace: he calls her civilised since she began to commit wholesale slaughter on Manchurian battle fields."

Tenshin Okakura Kakuzo wrote this in his *The Book of Tea*, published in 1906 just after the Russo-Japanese War. As he pointed out, Japan enjoyed a long happy sleep. From the seventeenth to the nineteenth centuries, neither foreign war nor revolution threatened the Tokugawa rulers. Then came the 'black ships', and Japan opened her ports unwillingly to the Western countries. Modernisation of the nation followed. Japan worked hard, taking the Western countries as models. Since then, Japan has experienced international conflicts several times.

A Rather Conservative Agrarian People

Japan was once composed of tranquil islands, occupied by agrarian, conservative people.

These islands are situated off the east coast of the mainland of Asia on the edge of the monsoon area. The regular alternation of seasons is very favourable to rice cultivation. In summer, humid winds blow from the south over tropical seas and bring heavy rainfall to the heated land. In winter, cold winds blow from the north over the relatively warmer Japan Sea, and hence bring much snowfall to the mountain range which runs from the southwest to the northeast tip of Japan's main island. The land is small and the plain suitable for growing rice is narrower still, but reliable sunshine, and plenty of water during the ripening season for rice, enable the Japanese to sustain themselves on this small island.

The situation is sharply in contrast with that of the Mediterranean countries. In the Greek archipelago, for example, it is very hot and rainless in the summer because the northeast trade winds in this season carry little moisture. Because their agriculture was not highly productive, the Greeks were forced to seek subsistence in colonisation and foreign trade. The history of ancient Greece is therefore largely a history of seafaring.

Japan, however, has been self-sufficient in agriculture, although growing rice is indeed heavy labour. Peasants have always to take care of the water supply, and have to weed the fields every day in the strong sunshine. The high productivity of rice in Japan derives largely from the diligence of peasants, and undoubtedly it is reflected in the characteristic of the Japanese from early times and into the present.

Though the winds from the tropical seas in summer are of vital importance for Japan, the same winds have another outcome. From time to time stormy winds blow and carry too much water to the land, causing serious damage. The course of a typhoon is difficult to predict, and all that we can do about it is to hope for good luck. This is true even at the present day of advanced science. From ancient times the Japanese experienced frequent disaster caused by

typhoons, and acquired a wise attitude to life in the monsoon area: "Be optimistic and indomitable. Don't complain about your bad luck." Buddhism brought a profound philosophy of life to Japan, but the Japanese do not usually think very deeply. They are essentially realists.

Samurai versus Chonin

In 1603, Tokugawa Ieyasu established a feudal system with its headquarters, the 'Bakufu', in Edo, and in this system the Bakufu maintained conditions of absolute peace and order for over two and a half centuries. The original form of traditional Japanese culture came from the Asian countries, especially from China and Korea, but, during long periods of peace, Japan reshaped original ideas into a culture of her own. Modernisation also took place in this period.

At the beginning of the Tokugawa feudal system, the wealth of the nation was almost completely agricultural. The shogun divided the whole land among his selected followers. The wealth produced by the peasantry was channelled through heavy taxation to the shogun and diamyō, and through them to their salaried samurai. Once nationwide peace was achieved, a great increase in productivity began to take place. All the diamyō tried to expand the arable lands in their domains. Agricultural technology was also developed, and thus crop yields gradually increased. The next stage led to a departure from the isolated, self-supporting domain economy. The diamyō learnt to trade excess rice, or other specialised products from their domains, on the national market in the great cities in the shogun's domain, such as Kyoto, Osaka, or Edo. In this trading activity, 'chonin', the commoner merchant, played an important role.

Merchants were ranked as the lowest class and they had to pay strict deference to the samurai, but they steadily gained power. Occasionally the samurai were forced into debt to merchant moneylenders. The outward political structure of the Tokugawa system remained virtually the same, but Japan was, by late Tokugawa times, quite a different country from what it had been two centuries before. The upper class of

merchants worked closely with the government as its economic agents, and were given semi-samurai status. They were even allowed to wear swords.

Japan in the mid-nineteenth century was far more commercialised than one would expect in a feudal country. Urbanisation was also extensive. The urban population, made up of the samurai and about an equal number of merchants and other commoners, constituted as much as 15 per cent of the total population. Edo, for example, grew to be a big city with a population of nearly one million - one of the largest cities in the world at that time.

Development of the Education System

Industrialisation motivated education. By the middle of the nineteenth century most feudal domains had official schools for their samurai. Besides, there were over a thousand private academies with their doors open for commoners along with samurai. For elementary education

"The development of the education system in Japan was remarkable, and the trend is continuing."

there were more than ten thousand 'terakoya', village schools, in the whole of Japan. Even boys and girls in rural peasant villages could acquire the three Rs if their families were not of the

poorest. About 45 per cent of the male and perhaps 15 per cent of the female populations were literate. The figures were not far below those of the Western countries at that time. In this way, one of the necessary conditions for modernisation of Japan was certainly established.

In 1871, only three years after the establishment of the new Meiji government, a ministry responsible for education was created. Next year an ambitious plan was adopted for a highly centralised and uniform school system which was believed to serve the proclaimed goal - to enrich and strengthen the nation. The preamble of the Fundamental Code of Education reads: "Learning is the key to success in life. There shall, in the future, be no community with an illiterate family; nor a family with an illiterate person." In 1873, the enrolment rates for male and female were about 40 and 15 per cent respectively. The figures rose continuously, and,

in 1912, the last year of the reign of Emperor Meiji, the enrolment rates for compulsory schools were already as high as 98.8 and 97.6 per cent.

The development of the education system in Japan was remarkable, and the trend is continuing. Since the end of World War Two, compulsory education has been extended to a nine year course, the enrolment rate being virtually 100 per cent. Moreover, most of the boys and girls want to go to upper secondary schools after their compulsory education. The rate was reported to be as high as 94.3 per cent in 1987. In the same year, the proportion of the age group going on to universities, colleges, and junior colleges reached 36.1 per cent.

Though the development was quantitatively remarkable, there are undoubtedly many problems in our education system. For instance, young people in their teenage years are required to devote an excessive amount of time to preparing for the entrance examinations of the colleges or universities at which they want to be enrolled. The word 'shiken jigoku', or examination hell, is used for the overheated race for higher education. A National Council on Educational Reform was set up in 1984 as an ad hoc advisory committee to the Prime Minister. The council energetically engaged in deliberations on education and related fields, and submitted four successive reports to the Prime Minister before the termination of its tenure in 1987. The Council identified the following goals as especially important for the twenty first century: (1) the nurture of open and generous hearts and minds, strong bodies, and richly creative spirits, (2) the development of free and self-determining individuals who are also good citizens, and (3) the cultivation of Japanese who are competent to live as members of the world community.

The Mother-Child Relationship

In the report of the Council it is also urged that the right development of the functions of the

home, the school, and the community, and the cooperation of the three parties, are of particular importance in reforming our education system.

In the Tokugawa period, both home and school education were based on Confucianism. The Meiji government introduced a completely different Western style curriculum into the schools, and discrepancies between the principles of education given in the school, the community, and the home began to appear. Moreover, the family system gradually broke down, especially after the end of World War Two. Now we must reconsider the role of mothers who are responsible for educating the next generation, in cooperation with the school teacher.

Ruth Benedict wrote in *The Chrysanthemum and the Sword* (1945) as follows: "In the

"To awaken young women to their responsibility as mothers is one of the most important objectives in Japan today".

Western culture parents begin immediately to prove to the baby that his own little wishes are not supreme in this world. They put him on a feeding schedule and a sleeping schedule, and no matter how he fusses before

bottle time or bed time, he has to wait. His mother is frequently out of sight and when she goes out he has to stay behind."

In Japan the way of raising babies was quite different. Travellers from the Western world in the early Meiji era noticed it and pointed out that Japan was paradise for children. They reported they had never seen a child scolded, slapped, or beaten. In fact, maximum freedom and indulgence were allowed for babies and children in Japan, and this way of Japanese child-rearing was long thought wrong by the Western community. Recently, it has been realised there are many different ways of approaching the development of children. Merry White (1987) points out that, for the Japanese, the most highly valued quality is an ability to maintain harmony in human relationships, and the effort of child-rearing is focused on developing this ability. Accordingly, the central human relationship in Japanese culture is that between mother and child. She depicts it as follows:

"The Japanese mother intuitively understands the desires and needs of the child's inner self and fulfills them without expecting the child to verbalise his own. She responds to his unexpressed signals and encourages his reading of her cues as well, thus creating an atmosphere of mutual sensitivity to mood and subtle body language... This encourages the child to reflect upon the consequences of his actions for others, as well as to expect from them the same kind of consideration. In the end, Japanese child-rearing develops a sensitivity and inclination to respond to the subtle mood states of other people.

She expects to share her days around him for many years, and in the expectation she is herself part of a consensus that mothering so understood is an appropriate and essential focus for a woman's life. For, without such mothering, it is understood within the Japanese cultural unconscious that the future of children and the survival of the nation are imperilled."

Her observation is correct, but is only correct if the phrase "in the past" is added. Nowadays, the number of "good mothers" is decreasing. Older people deplore young mothers' lack of dedication. Often the young mothers choose outside employment for money rather than staying at home for their children. To awaken young women to their responsibility as mothers is one of the most important objectives in Japan today.

Conclusion

Japanese were among the cleanest and tidiest of people. They were especially fond of things tiny and delicate. According to Sei-Shonagon, a court lady who lived in the tenth century, "all things small, no matter what they are, all things small are beautiful."

And finally the Japanese were very good at sophistication under constraints. For example, they have always been interested in expressing their deep emotion in 'tanka', or 'haiku', the world's shortest poetic form with only thirty-one or seventeen syllables respectively. Japanese gardens, flower arrangement, and tea ceremony are also in the same line of Japanese aesthetics: also creation of crystallised nature, simplicity in

living, restraint, and consistency for its own sake. Our Japanese ancestors were, so to speak, aware of the world's limitations, and were content with the limited world. Again let us quote from *The Book of Tea*, commenting on East-West contrasts:

"We have developed along different lines, but there is no reason why one should not supplement the other. You have gained expansion at the cost of restlessness; we have created a harmony which is weak against aggression. Will you believe it? - the East is better off in some respects than the West!"

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THE SUN HAD NO SHADOW

Making Sense of the World: the Basis of Curriculum Development

Peter van Stapele

Abstract

The role of storytelling in developing a child's ability to make sense of the world is described. This is presented as a key skill in developing the child's ability to develop and apply symbolic descriptions to his or her environment. The importance of the arts in developing education along these lines is examined.

Story

A few years ago I was working on making a shadow-theatre while my daughter of almost three years looked on. I taught her how to make shadow-puppets, and she was interested in how the theatre worked. Later that day while playing in the garden, she began looking around the yard. Suddenly she said, "Everything has a shadow. The trees have a shadow. The wall. The flowers. Even small things and animals have shadows, the ants and the blades of grass." Then she fell silent. After a while, she looked at me and asked, "Does the sun have a shadow?" She looked at the sky and said, "I don't think the sun has a shadow. I can't see it. Daddy, why doesn't the sun have a shadow?" I did not remember ever having thought about it before and asked her, "Why do you think the sun doesn't have a shadow?" She did not give me an answer and seemed to abandon the subject. Much later, when we were eating, she said, "I know why the sun doesn't have a shadow. Because the sun has no sun." And later again, when she went to bed, she said that she felt sorry for the sun being so alone.

I have told this story to people in different workshops, all over the world and all of them responded with telling the same type of stories, about their children and pupils, and about themselves when they were children. One group of educators from Asia, America, and Europe, made a storyboard for a film about a girl and her

dog. In the film she talks to the sun, loses her shadow and finds it again.

Creativity

The story I just told shows that in humans there is a compound of growing scientific and magic (fantastic, mysterious) consciousness and knowledge, working in making sense of realities. This making sense of realities is based on concrete observations, experiences, experiments, and social interaction about realities in our world. In this way our ideas, concepts, theory, etc. grow, from the processing of the perception to the making of what is understandable for us, imaginable, confined, finite, measurable, ending (the *finita*). Our curricula and school-work-plans, for example, are such *finita* although our aims may be infinite.

Making sense of realities through the creative use of signs shows us the process of signification. This process is, in fact, the making of realities by people themselves in a dialectical process between the inner and the outer worlds; between what can be felt and thought, and what can be perceived. We need creative education as a basis for living. Creativity is the power of making sense of the world through the use of connected signs. It is the possibility of observing, understanding, describing, analyzing, interpreting, and criticizing, valuing, and making realities. These realities are our own stories, myths, concepts, and ideas, related to existing ones. This is also why I think that all that we learn should be open to investigation. The main aim is learning to act in processes of signification using systems of different kind of signs like words, images, movement/gestures. The ability to learn something (e.g., arithmetic, natural history, physics or arts) expertly and well, in all cultures everywhere, is based on being able to perceive, understand and create

meaning in stories ('messages') made by integrated signs from different sign-systems.¹ This faculty should be the basic element of education.

It may be clear that by *stories* in this article I mean all possible narrations in the sense of any account of events, for example acts in succession, irrespective of the question whether a story is meant to be fictitious or not. Children are able to learn the art of storytelling (through play, etc.) at a very early age, which in my opinion forms an important basis of their entire education, although they may learn mastering certain modes of narrative, such as complicated forms of instruction, at a later stage than other modes, such as quite sophisticated forms of fiction. I think that the latter mode is a necessary basis to learn to master the former mode.

Project

The question is how to formulate curricula based on this foundation. A group of media educators from all parts of the world have been working since 1986 to formulate answers to that question. Results of their work have been published in 1989 in *Audiovisual Mass Media and Education* in *Tijdschrift voor Theaterwetenschap* (Journal of Theatre Studies). They are working now to prepare a second publication related to curriculum development and practice, on the 'what' and the 'how' of media education.

What is related to rethinking contents and the development of body, mind and psyche in education. *How* is related to methods, the finding of challenging new experiences, action and activities, and the like.

Such a close international cooperation between educators in curriculum development is also necessary if we want to foster in education a sense of world community and appreciation for the interdependence of mankind. It is necessary to facilitate educators in moving toward understanding cultural and social-economic life in a global perspective. The aim of such a cooperation is supporting teachers and other educators in their development to internationalism in their work. I think that work and money should be invested by national and

international organizations to develop and support international networks for the exchange of information and experiences of teachers and schools that work in that direction of international understanding and cooperation.

Basis

I have written earlier that the results of trying to make sense of the world are stories, myths, concepts, ideas, and the like, everywhere and always (1988). If a human being cannot make and understand stories with all the power of seeing, feeling, learning, understanding, and knowing, and with imagination, his or her foundation for being an independent, creative, skilled, and cooperative human being has not been fully developed. I have experienced and observed this in all situations of education, in all parts of the world, in all the communities and cultures I know, and I think that we may say:

the claim that learning to understand and to make stories is the basic pedagogical method in developing processes of signification, may be considered to be innate and universal.

This is why I have defined education as learning to understand and act in processes of signification of realities, connected with each other, using all media of communication (1989).

Saying that the aim of education is developing learning processes through which students can become independent, creative, skilled, and

cooperative is a general statement. Stating that the basis of education is learning to make sense of realities through the creative use of

signs is more concrete, more objective. Such a learning can be considered as a learning objective in itself. At the same time this objective should occur in all teaching-learning situations if we think that the aim of education is as I have formulated it. In fact, people learn to make sense of realities through the creative use of signs during early life while they are learning everything else, if they learn in what I think is a proper way. The telling of stories through the use of different media is the basic thing. This can be integrated into all acts of communication and interaction, involving the body, the mind, and the psyche.

"We need creative education as a basis for living."

Methodology

What educators can do is creating an atmosphere and develop methods of teaching the art of story-telling in different situations, which need not to be expensive. Once people have learned the basics, they are able to transfer their abilities to the use of other media. The basics can be learned without expensive machinery. After all, we, ourselves, are the most complicated and sophisticated 'machinery' in the world.

What almost every human being can learn is to direct the processes of storytelling with understanding and skill. This is not fundamentally different from learning to interact in any other situation. It does not mean that the learner primarily must become an expert in a particular field or job, but rather that he/she understands the processes and can control them in cooperation with other human beings. Basically all educators can meet the demands, the economic and social factors, and the questions and problems of organizing the proper situations for such education. Whatever the environment, it can be prepared and used for it. All humans can learn to master very complicated and sophisticated signs, not only elements or fragments, but whole (or composite) signs, through the use of codes (rules, principles, and conventions), by which we make sense of the world (create realities). Therefore, we should learn to make and understand whole signs, not fragments.

Methods

It may be clear now why I think that learning to tell stories is such a powerful and effective pedagogical method. It teaches people to become aware of their inner worlds as they relate to the outer worlds. Storytelling may involve the use of all kinds of sign-systems ('languages'), verbal as well as para-verbal and non-verbal, and all skills, capacities, feelings and emotions. This involves the whole person in acts of communication and interaction which can be of a growing complexity, and which can include research, writing, acting, and performing, on all possible subjects and themes, in all possible situations.

We move now to some guidelines about interactive sessions in education using dramatic

storytelling as an example. *Stories* only can be made by means of *plots*. Plotting is the structuring of the elements of the story; the *characters* (who can be ourselves) performing *action* and *activities* in *time* and *space*. It is all a matter of form, or rather of forming content. Form is important even if our stories are abstract or not directly comprehensible. In developing theory of creating abstract or surrealistic stories one needs form, for example.

There are many categories of methods we can use in this field:

- + doing things in daily life (for example, organizing environments)
- + talking about things and experiences in daily life
- + playing, alone or with others
- + playing games (for example, learning to cooperate and compete)
- + exploring environments
- + gathering objects and working with them
- + making and enjoying art
- + telling and listening
- + writing and reading
- + taking care of others and environments.

Playing

The example is a child playing with a doll. The child is creating meaning in a certain environment, with the use of certain tools (used as sign-vehicles) to create a meaningful situation. We observe that the child learns by doing and organizing the environment, by using tools (sign-vehicles), and by structuring all the elements into a new environment, alone or cooperating with others. I think that educators should provide and use environments and possibilities for such learning, throughout education, with pupils and students of every age.

If a child plays, it creates dramatic storytelling as a basis for further learning. All aspects of the art are there: the story, the conflict, etcetera; the setting/space/decor; the characters/children and/or dolls; the props/tools; the plotting, developing the story into time at a certain pace (which can go on for days and days); acting/playing by using all possible sign-vehicles like words, voice, movement/gestures and postures; and possibly also using costumes, masks, hairstyle, and the like. This

way of storytelling is basic and it is the property of all people; it is a form of education that we only have to develop further. The development from being naturally creative towards being culturally creative may be very complex and difficult to grasp and understand; I think that it should be the main aim of education. I am sure that we damage people if we do not nurture their innate creativity. This, in turn, damages society. The culture of every human being is structured through the use of several media of communication and interaction, and most children and grown ups have the potential to grow and learn in the way I am attempting to outline in this article.

Culture

I also think that in education proper the fine arts should play a fundamental role. As I wrote in 1987, to me the most important sign of culture and civilization are homes and schools in which the fine arts have a fundamental part in education. How can we speak of education proper if children do not have the opportunity to make stories through dancing, playing, drama, poetry, and music, drawing, painting, shaping, also related to other aspects of learning? How is it possible, then, that the fine arts *and artists* have no position in the heart of many of our educational institutions, and in curriculum development?

These are tantalizing questions. In practice, the situation is not too bad, at least not for the very young in flourishing schools say up to 8 years of age. If you enter their classrooms, in many schools you will be charmed by the beauty and depth of children's work in progress, and by products of earlier work. No question that in those schools children's creative activities are highly valued.

But all this seems to change completely from 8 years up. The causes and reasons why are very complex, and I am not able to report on my analysis of this phenomenon here. I want to make one thing clear: the decline in creativity cannot be explained as inevitable when a child grows and loses its 'naivete'. As I wrote above, the development from being naturally creative

towards being culturally and socially creative may be very complex and difficult to grasp and understand, but it should be the main aim of education.

The fine arts, also integrated in the learning process, should play a vital role in an education which enables people to learn to create, to be creative. Children, even at a very young age, learn the use of sign-systems mainly through creative activities related to interaction with other creatures and with objects in their environment. We know these activities as children's

play of all sorts (including poetry), movement, singing, drawing. In playing children explore and develop the internal and external worlds, and learn to represent their interpretations and thoughts. They learn to value and formulate feelings and questions. We are used to thinking about these activities as situations of 'informal learning' or 'informal education'. Children's creative activities can, however, be very formal, in the sense that they can be highly structured by themselves and the humans with whom they are working. What is 'informal' about those situations is that they are not so much structured by adults as is the case in many schools and other more formal educational situations. This is a very interesting point. Not only are children able (to learn) to structure their own learning processes, they learn basic things in doing so. This is also why many humans are good educators although most of them have not received a 'formal education' about educating.

Summary

The claim for learning to tell stories as the basic pedagogical method is not bold or exaggerated but natural, as has been proved by the work of a growing number of students and educators all over the world. I have experienced that the main problem we have to overcome is the disbelief that many people have in their own creative possibilities; and here also lies the main benefit from such creative education, which includes, as Gloria Olchowy Rozeboom said,

the evolution of a more complete and complex emotional spectrum, the development of empathy, the growth of awareness, and the

"School should be at the children's disposal."

increased sense of empathy (*Humanizing Through Dramatizing*, 1987)
We have the sun. And we have shadows.

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Note: 1 By sign-systems I mean a set of codes (rules, principles, and conventions) with regard to signs of the same sort, e.g. words or gestures.

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Curriculum Development: Perspectives from the Netherlands

Dr. Johan C. van Bruggen

Abstract

The author describes the activities of the Dutch National Institute for Curriculum Development within the framework of the Dutch school system. Dutch schools have traditionally been given a great deal of freedom to develop their own curricula, according to the religious and ideological wishes of the parents, and national curriculum development is both novel, and in some ways paradoxical. The author points towards some lessons which developments in the Netherlands and in the UK hold for teachers and curriculum developers in both countries.

Introduction

Writing about curriculum and curriculum development, one is inclined to focus on the content of the curriculum. What are students in primary or secondary schools supposed to learn? How are they supposed to learn? What is done if assessment shows that they are not meeting required targets? How are

teachers supposed to teach? And so on. And of course, it is the content of teaching and learning - content understood in the double sense of knowledge, skills and attitudes to be learned on the one hand and methods to do that on the other hand - that is of most interest for everyone who is interested in the education of students. But there are three reasons for choosing another focus in this article; namely the mechanisms of curriculum development in the Netherlands: how is curriculum development done in schools, in institutes and perhaps by the government? Who has decisive power in these mechanisms? How democratic are the mechanisms? Who is paying for curriculum development? Is there a certain established strategy or method of approach for curriculum development?

The three reasons for this focus are:

- a. The fact, that in Great Britain in educational journals and books a lot of attention is given to questions of this kind, especially since the

appearance of the so called "national curriculum" and the plans and actions of the government concerning attainment targets, programmes of study and assessment. Of course, we in the Netherlands, have followed with a lot of interest the developments of the last six years and we have made contact with many professional people from both the political and educational field in Great Britain. The mechanisms of curriculum development in the Netherlands will be of interest to educators elsewhere.

b. Recently an article containing a summary of the developments in curriculum content in Dutch schools for primary and general secondary education appeared elsewhere. (Gert van den Brink and Johan van Bruggen, 1990) And of course, it is almost impossible to give a balanced report and assessment of the content of the Dutch curriculum in a brief article.

c. There is a rather strong wish among politicians, but also among professionals working in curriculum development, for closer cooperation between groups working in curriculum development within Western Europe. For reasons of economy (sharing each other's experiences, raw materials and ideas) but of course also for reasons of ideology. In the last five or six years several bilateral connections between institutes for curriculum development and professional groups in universities have been established and in 1989 ten institutes for curriculum development and curriculum research took the decision to make a Consortium of Institutes for Research and Development in Education in Europe (CIDREE). In 1990 CIDREE organised four workshops for staff members of the participating institutes in order to serve the goals of the consortium: common staff development; sharing of information about professional developments; and looking for possibilities for real cooperation in research and development. If this type of real cooperation is to develop within Western Europe in the coming years - and in my opinion it should be developed - it is necessary to have some knowledge of each other's mechanisms of curriculum development, because these mechanisms are rooted in the history and culture of the school systems of participating countries. This does not mean that cooperation cannot be organised, but it has to be organised in a way that recognises these roots.

This text mainly describes the situation in the Netherlands, although the reader will find some evaluative statements. At the end of the text I present some thoughts about the future of the mechanisms of curriculum development in the Netherlands.

The concept "curriculum" in the Netherlands

"Curriculum" is not a Dutch word, although it is used more and more, not only in scientific publications, but even in communication in and around schools. In the Anglo-American tradition the word indicates various aspects and dimensions of the planned teaching and learning in schools. Typical of this tradition is the definition of Glatthorn (1987): "The curriculum is the plans made for guiding learning in schools, usually represented in retrievable documents of several levels of generality, and the implementation of those plans in the classroom; those experiences take place in a learning environment that also influences what is learned".

So the realisation of the plan for teaching and learning is included in the definition. This is not common in the Dutch, German, or French discussion about words such as "leerplan", "Lehrplan", or "programme". These continental terms refer only to the plan that is made for guiding learning and teaching without referring to the implementation of these plans.

When we in the Netherlands speak or write about "leerplanontwikkeling" (literally translated: the development of curriculum) we refer to the development of what Glatthorn describes as:

- the recommended curriculum (developed by a committee, a group, an institute):
- the written curriculum, that is valid for a school, a teacher, a certain district, or even the whole country.
- We are not dealing with the other levels of abstraction which Glatthorn describes:
 - the taught curriculum:
 - the supported curriculum, materialised in textbooks, time, room, staff, training, and hardware:
 - the tested curriculum, materialised in tests, examinations, and assessment procedures:
 - the learned curriculum, which pupils actually learn.

These six levels of abstraction in the curriculum can be considered as a rearrangement and extension of the curriculum levels of Goodlad (1979).

Of course, the taught curriculum and the supported curriculum are very important. In fact, the recommended and written curriculum are developed in order to improve the taught curriculum. And this improvement of the taught curriculum (in the Netherlands we more commonly speak about "het onderwijs" which means approximately "what is actually done in classrooms by teachers and students") is so important, because we have an implicit belief, that an improvement of the taught

curriculum will lead to an improvement of the learned curriculum.

So, the Dutch "curriculum development" is a more modest term than the Anglo-American use of the word. Even so, in the last few years in the Netherlands, the development of textbooks and sometimes also hardware and tests, to be used in classrooms by teachers and students, is seen as a part of curriculum development. So there is a tendency to broaden the term in the Netherlands to the development of all kinds of material that can be of help in the daily work of teachers.

This has something to do with the roots of the present Dutch school system. In Dutch history the struggle for free schools, based on religious choices of parents and children, dominated educational policy in the 19th century and the first half of the 20th century, and even now this element is very important. 70% of Dutch schools are private in the sense that the government of the school is in the hands of an association of parents and others or a school board based on a foundation. The political struggle of the 19th century found a provisional end in a compromise which was formulated in the constitution of 1917. In that constitution the freedom of education was formulated. Everyone in the Netherlands who could find a minimum number of parents who declared that they wanted to send their children to the school to be founded, could found such a school and would be paid for the costs of that school (teachers, buildings, teaching materials). And of course, the heart of the matter is that such a group has the right to offer a curriculum in that school which fits the religious or ideological beliefs, on which the foundation is based.

The consequence of this approach is that it is unthinkable that a Dutch government will take far reaching curricular decisions about knowledge, skills, attitudes, textbooks to be used, written curricula to be established by a government in the form of attainment targets and/or programmes of study or something similar.

The constitution explicitly states that the choice of textbooks is free. But the constitution also states that the national government has the right to formulate "demands of quality". This concept "demands of quality" was explained in the twenties and thirties as demands of quality of teachers: diplomas, healthy people without a criminal record etc., and also as demands of quality for buildings and furniture, but never as demands of quality concerning the curriculum. The struggle for this free education, however, was for a large part based on the growth of

primary education for the younger children in the 19th century: as in all European countries the mass systems for primary education emerged in the period of population growth and industrial revolution. Later in the 20th century the same principle of "freedom of education" was also declared valid for secondary education. But for secondary education the "demands of quality" have been translated as possibilities for the government to impose examination programmes for junior secondary schools and for senior secondary schools for general and vocational education. The government would also have the right to impose timetables for secondary schools.

The consequence of this approach was that in the Primary Act of 1984 the curricular tasks for schools have only been formulated in very broad terms: three general aims (of some eight sentences in total) and a small list of topics or subjects, that should receive attention in schools. These are worded as, "Dutch language should be taught", or, "Children should be

introduced into some knowledge areas: geography, history, natural sciences, including biology, relations in society, including the political system, religions and philosophical systems and viewpoints". But

there are no attainment targets; no programmes of study. The same is true for the examination programmes - most of them - for secondary education. For example, the examination programme for modern languages in the general schools for secondary education consists of only one page with some general aims for language teaching. In the Primary Act of 1984 another important command for schools was formulated: each school should develop its own written curriculum, the so called "schoolwerkplan", literally translated the school working plan, or better, the school-specific and school-developed curriculum. Specific instructions for the format of this "schoolwerkplan" were included in the law. The background of this demand is that schools are free in their curricular decisions, but have to show how they use this freedom. They have to present that to the inspector, who must decide if the school meets the rather vague demands of the law and the specific demands concerning the position of teachers, demands for the buildings, etc. But more important, perhaps, is that schools have to show their choices to their environment: parents, schools for secondary education, the local press, and so on.

In the years preceding the Primary Act of 1984 there was some discussion as to whether this absolute freedom should continue. Some small groups and

***"These continental terms
refer only to the plan that is
made for guiding learning
and teaching."***

some individual members of various political parties proposed that something which has later been called in Great Britain "attainment targets" should be introduced. That was not the choice of the Dutch government in the early eighties. But at the end of the eighties the discussion reappeared and in 1986 a sentence in the new government programme said that the government would investigate the desirability and possibility of introducing attainment targets for primary education. Some proposals for these attainment targets for primary education have been developed (by the SLO at the request of the government, which I will return to) but until now a definitive decision about the introduction of these attainment targets has not been taken. It has become clear that the level of abstraction of these attainment targets will remain rather high. For example, for a subject like English only two pages of attainment targets have been formulated, for geography three pages, and so on. But it is undeniable that this is a very important change in governmental policy concerning curricular freedom for primary schools. The motives for this change are the same as the motives that are still apparent in the English discussion: some fear that schools abuse their freedom by delivering too little quality: problems with mobility of children between schools: problems in the transition from primary to secondary schools. But of course there are also many people who are afraid of excessive governmental power in education.

As an introduction to the Dutch curriculum debate it is enough to conclude that:

a. The Dutch wording "curriculum development" is more restricted than the Anglo-American wording.

b. In the Netherlands there is a tradition of curriculum freedom which is formulated in the constitution and which is still a very important political issue. This is not only for reasons of religion and ideology, but in recent years also increasingly for reasons of democratisation: let parents and other people decide about their own schools.

Curriculum development as a mechanism

The background of the whole idea of "curricular freedom" from the 19th century was that citizens who took the initiative to establish their own school for their children, should appoint teachers, buy materials and take decisions about the curriculum (subjects, topics, approaches, objectives, etc.) that, taken together, should lead to a "taught and learned curriculum" that was a good expression of their basic

ideas about education, based on their religious or ideological backgrounds. And so it happened frequently that simple citizens in the 19th century expressed their ideas about what to teach about the bible, about Dutch history, about biology and so on, though only to a lesser extent about how to teach to read, to calculate, or to write. Gradually the professionals, the teachers, established a tradition, in which their training was decisive. Although in the twenties and thirties of the 20th century some people tried to develop textbooks specifically written for catholic or protestant schools (for reading, history, biology) most of the "body of knowledge" in schools of different origins was more or less the same. In a very recent investigation of the situation in schools in 1987 (after the introduction of the Primary Act) it

again appeared that the division of time for the various subjects did not differ very much in schools from different origins or from different regions. So, generally speaking, one would say that the rhetoric about

curricular freedom, choices and responsibility for schools has not led to a practice of specific and articulated school-specific curricula and school-specific "taught curricula".

Nevertheless research from recent years shows that now - only five years after the introduction of the Primary Act - some 60% of primary schools have a school-specific and school-bound curriculum ("schoolwerkplan") that meets the demands of the law; that contains many individual choices; that strengthens the coordination within the school; and, as teachers report it, in its process of development has helped a lot in unification of the curricular language in the schools and in coordination of teaching methods.

Of course, there are at present many researchers and politicians who are disappointed with this 60%, because they had hoped that many more schools would have realised the tremendous effort of this heavily loaded "schoolwerkplan" development, in spite of the climate of budget cuts, staff reductions and so on. My personal opinion is that we have seen in the Netherlands a very positive development of responsibility, taken by schools in developing their own "schoolwerkplan", although there is still a lot to do, specifically in respect of the connection between the document and educational practice.

For primary schools it is true that in several cases groups of parents have been involved in discussions about the curriculum for primary schools, not in a technical way, but in debates for example about

"Schools are free in their curricular decisions, but have to show how they use this freedom."

priorities for the arts versus arithmetic and mathematics. My impression, based on minimal research, is that in recent years the involvement of parents, not to speak of other citizens, has diminished. In secondary schools the development of school-specific curricula is not required by the government. Nevertheless some 40% of secondary schools have developed (in the seventies and the eighties) a kind of "schoolwerkplan". But of course in secondary schools, the subject-specific curricula ("written curriculum") are much more important than the school wide curricula, which mainly have a coordinating functions. Probably still more important are textbooks, guidelines for teachers, descriptions of lessons, slides, and films.

In the late seventies and the early eighties it was "bon ton" to promote the development of all these types of materials by teachers. It was explicitly stated that the salaries of teachers were based not only on their teaching hours, but also on estimated time for assessment of students' written work and for estimated time for development of their own profession and development of curricular plans. All schools for secondary education received some extra time for coordination, for planning of curricula and other non lesson-bound time. There was a more or less general feeling that good, professional teachers were progressive, spent a lot of time looking for new materials, thought about new ideas, discussed with their colleagues the planning of teaching and learning and in writing subject-specific curricula.

In the late eighties, however, there was a shift in opinion regarding the profession of the teacher. More and more people from universities, national institutes and so on, wrote to say that the first responsibility of teachers is "teaching" and not developing new ideas, elaborating "school working plans", not to speak of textbooks, or descriptions of lessons. More important, it is said, is the capacity of teachers to choose these materials, to adapt these materials to their own use, from among those that are offered from outside the schools.

So the actual situation in primary and secondary schools at the end of the eighties it is accepted that, "each school has to have its own school-bound and school-specific curriculum", in which the school responds to the legal demands and to the environment of the school. But developing this "schoolwerkplan" and the materials that belong to it is hard work and requires a lot of time and specific capacities and is perhaps not an inherent task for teachers. I have to confess, that the logical connection of these last two statements is not very clear in the Netherlands. Of course, there are some groups of schools, belonging

to the same religious or ideological backgrounds, that have tried to assist each other. For example there is a national group of Montessori schools, that have developed specific Montessori curricula for primary schools for years with some help from the SLO. The same is true for some other groups. There are no regional developments, because in the Netherlands there is no district system or anything that can be compared with a "local education authority". The national associations of, for example, catholic schools have done a certain amount, but little in the area of curriculum development.

Support for schools

Especially in the seventies a lot of money and energy was invested in the creation of institutes that could help schools in their own development. The main results of this expanding period are:

a. Some sixty regionally operating school guidance centres (in total some 2,000 staff) working for primary schools and offering help for students with difficulties (in the form of advice to teachers), advice and help in the development of school-specific curricula, and the introduction of certain elements in the curriculum (thematic geography, computers in arithmetic, and music teaching). These centres have contributed much towards helping with the development of school-specific curricula and, as research shows, have won a lot of sympathy in schools for this work.

b. Three national centres for pedagogical studies and guidance, aimed at secondary schools and divided into a catholic, a protestant and a general centre working for non-denominational private schools and public schools. These centres offer organisational help, courses for the development of school-specific curricula, help in merging procedures, national innovation schemes, for example computer education, new examination programmes for chemistry, and so on.

c. A National Institute for Educational Measurement (CITO), that develops tests for use by teachers in their own curriculum but also a test at the end of primary education which can be taken in order to assist teachers advising children regarding their choices of a school for secondary education at the age of twelve. An important task of CITO is to assist groups of inspectors and teachers (nominated by the ministry) to prepare the annual examinations for secondary education. A rather recent task is the development of assessment procedures and materials for a nationwide assessment of the condition of Dutch education. This was introduced in 1986 in the Netherlands in the same manner of thinking that has

led to the English APU (Assessment of Performance Unit) and the American NAEP (National Assessment of Educational Progress).

d. A National Institute for Educational Research (SVO), which has to finance and coordinate a large part of the educational research done in university-based institutes.

e. The SLO is the Dutch National Institute for Curriculum Development.

The SLO as a helping organisation for curriculum development

It will be clear from the history of Dutch education and the focal point of "curricular freedom" that the establishment of the SLO was not simple, because it should be an institute that could offer professional help to schools in their own curriculum development tasks. The gaining of power by the Ministry of Education regarding decisions concerning the content of education and the influence in the programming of the SLO was to be avoided. The discussions (between 1968 and 1975) have lead to a balanced regulation of the SLO. There is a Board of Governors of some thirty people, representing the national associations of school boards and some other groups and in this board observers of the ministry play an important intermediate role without voting rights. There is a 100% subsidy (with some possibilities for the SLO to earn money from selling publications or from contracts with firms) and the minister has to approve the budget plans of the institute: but the law regulating the supporting institutes says that at least 40% of the capacity of the SLO has to be invested in requests for curriculum development, coming from organisations in the educational field. The requests of the ministry may cover a maximum of another 40%. 20% may be invested in institutional development of the SLO, in research, or in new developments. There are many other checks and balances, governing nomination of personnel, allocation of budgets to projects, organisation of the institute and its links to schools, other institutes in the support structure and so on.

The institute has now some 170 professional staff and some 130 clerical staff, a budget of some \$20,000,000 and a vast range of products and services that are offered to the various parts of the educational field in the Netherlands. The projects cover the following:

primary education, including special education and teacher-training colleges;

general secondary education (for schools for 12-16/17/18 year olds); during the last few years this has been the largest division for reasons of priority; vocational education; adult education.

There are other departments with supporting tasks for: research and evaluation; marketing and international contacts; public relations and information; personnel and organisation; finances; household.

As mentioned, the SLO operates "on request". Requests can be formulated by, for example, the national pedagogic centres, the national associations of school boards, regional associations of school boards, national or regional associations of subject teachers, national or regional parent organisations, and so on, but not by an individual school. Our second customer is the Ministry of Education and Science. A lot of activity of the director, the executive

committee and the directors of the departments has to be invested in consultation with associations and organisations and with civil servants in order to achieve an annual budget plan that balances the interests of

autonomous schools and associations and a central ministry of education and sciences, a precise balance that is necessary for the SLO to do its job successfully.

This principle is very important. It goes without saying that most projects of the SLO (carried out by a group of two to five staff members with enough money to hire part-time teachers, researchers and other people) involve some experimenting schools, universities, or individuals in schools or associations who have shown to be able to give a specific contribution to the project. Very often there is also contact with civil servants from the Ministry of Education and Science in order to join requests of the ministry with requests from field organisations and to come to an intertwining of the two lines in programming and execution. Networking with other organisations, with associations of schools and university associations is vital for the existence of SLO projects and for their success. This is not only true against the background of "curricular freedom" and autonomy for schools and their associations. But it is also true against the background of what we know about innovation and implementation in education. The research in this domain on both sides of the Atlantic Ocean shows - see for example the very important reports in the International School Improvement Project of the OECD - that

"A lot of money and energy was invested in the creation of institutes that could help schools."

participation of schools, networking, long term implementation plans, elaborating the innovation in terms of in-service training, textbook renewal, classroom organisation patterns, assessment instruments, training of school leaders... is vital for the connection between curriculum development in a more narrow sense (of production of new ideas in an institute with a small number of experimental schools) and innovation and implementation at a larger scale.

The organisation of this link between the curriculum development task of the SLO and implementation and innovation in the Netherlands shows various problems. This does not concern the cooperation with a few schools, that do a trial of newly developed curricular materials and who are involved in first or second testing rounds or in complicated research with curriculum development, although sometimes the scattered situation of research in various Dutch universities causes some organisational or financial problems. But we have learned to cope with these problems. But the "diffusion"

part of the classical RDD is the most difficult. There is no national implementation institute or implementation policy and it is quite understandable that such a thing does not fit in to Dutch educational policy. There is some cooperation between SLO projects for primary education and the local and regional guidance centres, but coordination of the work of these centres is almost impossible, because they all are autonomous and have to care for their own relations with their local and regional school boards, who know very little about national developments and national projects. But as a matter of fact these projects are not very different from what is happening in other countries with other historical backgrounds. The implementation problems are vital everywhere. In the last five years various impact evaluation studies have been done, concerning SLO projects of the late seventies and the early eighties. Summarised, these investigations show that if teachers are aware of SLO publications (guidelines, examples of "schoolwerkplan",

*"If the SLO is working
"on request" is it then
possible to take an
individual stand in matters
of educational content?"*

descriptions of lessons, background publications about a certain topic) they generally are satisfied with the content and format of the publications. There are also complaints about the number of pages and the sometimes technical language and so on, but teachers indicate also that publications can be used in the preparation of lessons and in discussions about the school-specific curriculum. A provisional account of this research is to be found in an article of Edwin K. Marshall: "In search of the impact of the Dutch Institute for Curriculum Development: an empirical-analytical approach" in a special issue of *Studies in Educational Evaluation*, Volume 13, No.3, 1987 (Pergamon Press: Oxford). In the same issue there is some comparative work on the impact of other institutes. Since 1986/1987 several other investigations have been published in the Netherlands about the impact of SLO projects. They also show that time is a very important factor in impact and that networking with educational publishers, local guidance centres, teacher-training colleges, and

publications in all kinds of educational press, are important factors. It is not possible to go in to detail of this very interesting aspect of the mechanisms of curriculum development.

More and more we see in the Netherlands that groups of people, working in various institutes in the support structure are finding ways to coordinate their activities with groups of schools, educational publishers and other people. But much more can be done to improve this coordination.

The projects of the SLO in these fifteen years were numerous and varied. For primary education all subjects have been dealt with in longer projects. But there has also been work on, for example, developmental education, a curriculum for Frisian language, and language and culture of ethnic minorities. Gradually more priority has been given to the subjects and topics which are important in junior and secondary general education. For most of the subjects new proposals for curricula, including examples of lessons and sometimes also advisory contracts

with educational publishers, have been finished and/or are still being developed. Very important projects have been carried out for economy, writing across the curriculum, chemistry, social and political sciences, consumer education, developmental education, electronics, construction, information technology in administration and office work, and music. Projects for modern languages, mathematics, history and geography and various other smaller projects are being developed. (More information about the work of the SLO can be obtained from the SLO direct.)

There is an important tension in the work of the SLO in connection with schools and other participants. If the SLO is working "on request" is it then possible to take an individual stand as an institute, as a department or as a project staff, in matters of educational content? Of course not: the SLO wants to be a helping organisation of a "technical" character that can be compared with an engineering institute: "If this is the curriculum you want... we will try to develop ideas that can help you to do the job". But of course in the daily activities there are preferences of staff members and we try to formulate the choices as clearly as we can in project plans and publications in order to provoke discussions about these choices. I think that generally speaking the work of the SLO is innovative in character: not too progressive, but certainly not traditional or conservative. There is a growing international cooperation in various projects. And there are also indications that this not too progressive approach is appreciated by our customers.

Assessment in schools and in the system

Of course also in Dutch schools teachers assess their students regularly with questions, paper and pencil work, writing, conversations, more elaborated tests and so on. In primary education there is no examination or anything similar, but children who want to go to the higher forms of general education have to take a psychological test (very few do), a probing class of some weeks (very few do) or an aptitude test at the end of primary education. Almost all children opt for the latter, and half of the children (some 100,000 per year) take the test, developed by the National

Institute for Educational Measurement (CITO). This test consists of three parts, and is taken in the last six months of the eighth grade of primary schools. It covers mathematics, Dutch language, general knowledge. The tests are rather progressive and develop in the course of the years in their content, but slowly. Naturally, they have an influence on the gradual innovation of primary education. For secondary education the content of the annual examinations, developed by CITO through groups of teachers and inspectors, is very important for the interpretation of the vague examination programmes. The other half of the value of the examination comes from the school bound examinations. Teachers are free to choose their own examination forms (teaching about books, practical work, staging musical performances, essay writing, conversations and so on). But there are also developments in the written national examinations.

There is no important debate about these forms of assessment and examinations. It is very difficult to have a national picture of the situation in education. There was a growing feeling in the early eighties among politicians and educational experts that some indicators and some incidents showed that the quality of education, whatever that may be, had gradually diminished, and that we did not have good, reliable facts about the results of education. This feeling has led to the appearance of a new project PON, "Assessment of the level of the quality of education". This is comparable with APU, NAEP or similar developments in Sweden. At first some experiments were carried out in order to find the correct forms, but now the PON is accepted and the first results of national assessments for Dutch in primary and secondary education have been published and analysed and have been of help for regional and national discussions regarding desirable curricular tests and reconstructing them. There is good cooperation between the test developers in CITO and curriculum developers in the SLO and researchers in university institutes.

Although the results of the assessments which have been published up to now have provoked some discussion (for example about the 7% of 14 year olds who show great difficulties in

formulating written messages) there is no resistance to the assessment as such and no public debate or debate in the educational field about its appearance.

A decision has not yet been taken about a possible connection between the attainment targets for primary education or for basic education, ending at 15/16 years and the assessment procedures. This is the same topic as the English debate about attainment targets and the connection with the GCSE examinations. In coming years, this will be dealt with.

Some remarks about the future

These remarks concern the future of the mechanisms of curriculum development in the Netherlands, but of course there is a relationship with the general development of schools and education and the content of education. I expect that the system of nationwide assessment will develop in the coming years. The consequence will be that more facts and figures about the outcomes of educational processes in schools for primary and junior secondary education will be available. And that will mean that schools in their planning processes will have a more visible point of reference. It will not be possible to use these facts and figures in a school bound way, because they are not based on school bound assessment. But probably parents, older students and receiving schools will ask what the school in question is doing to reach a level equal to the average national standard or above.

The second point of reference will be laid down in the attainment targets, prescribed by the government, although these will be formulated rather generally.

A third development is supporting the same direction; parents and the public in general are not accepting without question the situation in schools and the school system and this will lead to more discussions between school teachers and parents than at present about the content of education and planning in the school. For the institutional mechanisms of curriculum development, in the SLO this probably will lead to a situation where there are more requests for more specific examples of written curricula for subjects and topics and for the whole process of planning, teaching and learning in the school.

This is in order to facilitate the responsiveness of teachers to their own environment. The diversity of requests coming to the SLO, will probably grow. One curriculum proposal for a subject like mathematics in junior secondary education will not be enough, because various philosophies of mathematical education will be accepted in schools and they all will ask for support. A more "technical" approach to curriculum development will be necessary. This approach is already visible in the SLO. Negotiation about the clarification of the philosophy of education and content and planning, upon which the curriculum should be based and negotiation about the format of the products to be delivered. A second consequence probably will be that the rather sharp separation between curriculum development as a mechanism and innovation and implementation will diminish, because curriculum proposals additionally will be seen as one of the instruments schools or groups of schools will use in their own regional policy. If systems of lump-sum subsidies and processes of grouping schools in larger units will continue, as they seem to do, it could be that in the negotiation process also financial aspects will appear.

All these changes will probably take place gradually without sharp shifts in the position of the SLO between the central government and the free individual schools.

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Johan C. van Bruggen has been Deputy Director for Development of the Dutch National Institute for Curriculum Development since 1976. The Institute (in Dutch, SLO) is responsible for producing all kinds of curricular materials and ideas for schools, bodies and the government.

THE WORLD EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP

AN APPEAL FROM THE CHAIRMAN OF WEF INTERNATIONAL

Dear Member,

The educational world is changing rapidly, both here and overseas.

At home, teachers and schools are having to cope with government inspired changes in the curriculum; all children are to be tested at regular intervals; resources for teachers to do their job are being squeezed. Similar pressures are felt in Australasia.

The peoples of Eastern Europe, freed from political tyranny, are thirsty for educational inspiration from the West. The WEF has received many requests for direct help. The people of the Third World are as much in need of basic educational provision as they ever were - and there are more of them.

The World Education Fellowship is in a unique position to help in all of these situations. Unique amongst educational pressure groups, the WEF covers all sectors and all subject disciplines. It believes in the intellectual, social and emotional development of all people, of all countries, of all ages.

The WEF has committed itself to making positive responses to the needs of the Third World and Eastern Europe. It is promoting ways of encouraging its values by encouraging good practice in teaching, everywhere.

To do its job the WEF needs two things: - more funds and more members.

Help us promote good education for all. Contribute to the Chairman's Fund by sending a cheque to the Treasurer. Send the Treasurer the names of any potential new member.

Finally, please can you arrange to covenant the WEF. This is an effective way of increasing our income without too much burden on our members. Write to the Treasurer for details. (complete the enclosed form and return to the Treasurer).

Thank you for your continuing support. The WEF has achieved much in its 70 years; there is still much more to do.

Your sincerely,

Professor John Stephenson, Chairman World Education Fellowship.



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Round de World - WEF Section News

Rosemary Crommelin

Headquarters:

A particular paragraph in the Chairman's paper on possible future activities of the Fellowship, which was circulated and discussed at the meeting of General Assembly during the April Conference in London, has featured prominently in the agenda at recent committee meetings. I refer to the proposal for "positive action to stimulate WEF Section in new areas, eg. Eastern Europe"

Many participants in London expressed the hope that a further Learner Managed Learning Conference would be held at an early date so that the impetus generated should not be lost. For this reason the joint-committee (with representation from the RSA, the School for Independent Study at the Polytechnic of East London, and WEF) was not disbanded, but was asked to investigate possibilities for a future conference.

Eunice Hinds of the School for Independent Study has been in touch with a number of organisations in central and eastern European countries, and the committee is going ahead provisionally with plans for a further conference, to be held in Czechoslovakia during 1991 - possibly in September - the dates to be negotiated with

local contacts. Applications for funding are being made to several organisations, and strong support has been promised in both Czechoslovakia and Germany.

Again continuing the ground-work established during the London conference, and the emphasis on Networking, which could be strengthened through INIS (the International Newsletter of Independent Study), Eunice Hinds is hoping to offer a more formal network publication giving an index of entries in alphabetical order and sub-divided geographically, each organisation being indexed under the appropriate key words: Adult Education, Assessment, Counselling, Consultancy, Further Education, Higher Education, Industry, Infants, Junior, Management, Primary Education, Professions, Research, Resources, Selection, Senior Staff, Staff Development.

Tom Daffern, of the Philosophy of Education Department at London University, recently contacted us in connection with his work with the Initiative for Peace Studies in the University, and his recent visit to Moscow, and he was asked to speak, in the context of the Chairman's paper, at the September

meeting of the Guiding Committee.

The Moscow conference, with the theme Democracy in Education, has been attended by Philosophers in Education from, among other countries, Russia, Poland, Bulgaria and Hungary, and although East Europe is still in a state of flux he was impressed by the visionary work being done. The next Philosophers for Peace conference will be held in 1992 or 93, and he has been appointed international coordinator.

Tom Daffern had also attended the International Peace Research Conference in the Netherlands, where he had met with several Scandinavian representatives; he plans to build up an international network within European universities. He hopes to attend a special East European Study Group founded by the Polish Institute of international Affairs, the theme of the seminar to be "Changes in Eastern Europe, and will they lead to chaos or advance in human culture as a whole?" Following the meeting in Poland, he may visit Oslo.

The feasibility of an "Education Aid" Scheme (following other successful "Aid" appeals such as Band-Aid, etc. is being looked

into by the Institute of Education, and WEF hopes to be represented at the preliminary discussions. Meantime the Institute plans to set up a new Department of International Understanding, something which WEF will watch with keen interest, as members may recall our late Chairman, Jim Henderson's, hope that this might come about.

The Committee welcomed Tom Daffern's report of his visits and contacts, and it was agreed he should be asked to attend future meetings of the Guiding Committee as a co-opted member.

Netherlands

We are grateful for the support received from Sections for the network proposal following the Learner Managed Learning conference, and because the reply from The Hague gives an indication of the work of the Netherlands Section, we give their comments in full:

"This is to confirm our support to your work in organizing a European Network of scholars and teachers to develop the possibility of exchanging information and experiences on Learner Managed Learning.

"We think that is very important for educators in Eastern and Western Europe to participate in such an exchange through newsletters and correspondence, visiting each others' work, participating in European workshops, and

studying methodology and the development of theory about learner managed learning in an international context.

"Your initiative is also closely related to our work in the Netherlands and abroad, which is supported by our National Unesco Committee and Ministry of Education, and in which we co-operate with organizations like the Dutch National Institute for Curriculum Improvement, the Working Centre of Local and Regional Education Centres, the international Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development and the World Council for Curriculum and Institution."

India

At a meeting of the Commonwealth Countries League during the summer an appeal was made on behalf of the Sadd-Brown Library for material relating to outstanding women in present and former Commonwealth countries. Betty Adams, who was at the meeting, suggested that Dr Madhuri Shah's life and work should be remembered at the Library.

We accordingly wrote to Mrs Lini Hazarat in Bombay, and she kindly sent copies of Madhuri Shah's research papers and articles, and of addresses, lectures and speeches she had given at conferences and on other occasions, together with the book *Harmony*. These have been sent to the Sadd-Brown Library, which is lodged with

the Fawcett Library at the City of London Polytechnic, and have been gratefully acknowledged.

Lini Hazarat told us that by chance, on the day of receiving our letter she was meeting with the head of the Nehru Memorial Library in New Delhi, who had a similar request, and so Madhuri Shah's papers are now available to scholars in New Delhi and in London.

Readers may be interested to learn that the Sadd-Brown Library was founded in 1939, in memory of Myra Sadd-Brown, pioneer of women's rights and a founder-member of the Commonwealth Countries League. The league was founded in 1925 (as the British Commonwealth League) to secure equality of liberties, status and opportunities between men and women in the Commonwealth, and promote women's social and political education. It links together in friendship and understanding over forty women's organisations in nearly thirty Commonwealth countries.

The Commonwealth Fair, held every October at the Commonwealth Institute, offers Commonwealth produce, and food for sale, and raises funds for the League's Secondary Education Sponsorship, started in 1966. The fund helps girls of ability from deprived backgrounds, over a period of five to seven years, to complete their secondary schooling in their own country.

Italy

Professor Marco Cecere, Secretary of the Italian Section, took part in a recent series of discussions organised by the City of Florence in collaboration with the Committee for Senior Citizens. The broad theme of the six discussion-evenings was "The Citizen Protects Itself," and they aimed to give a better understanding of both rights and duties, and at the same time to encourage the working towards and improvement in the life of the City and its environment. Professor Cecere gave two out of the six lectures, the first being on "The Citizen and the Public Services", and the second, when he spoke as Secretary of the Italian Section of the World Education Fellowship, on "Television Today - Uses and Abuses."

Nepal

In line with the worldwide concern for forests and forestry, the WEF Nepal Section Launched a Tree Plantation programme last July. A meeting was held in Shanti Balika Gilr's Hostel Campus in Mandikatar, Kathmandu, and the Minister of Education, Dr Keshar Jung Rayamajhi was the Chief Guest. In addressing the audience he emphasised the importance of environmental education in keeping the atmosphere safe, and that

pollution in any part of the world affects mankind as a whole. Afforestation, he said, is the only alternative to disaster, and the newly-planted trees must be protected so that they reach their full growth.

Dr Radha Krishna Joshi, President of WEF, stressed the importance of environmental education in all schools, so that pupils will have a keen awareness of the environment and will be encouraged to take part in programmes such as the Tree Plantation, Keeping the Surroundings Clean, etc. Also present, as well as members of the WEF Nepal Section, was the Central Executive of the Nepal Leprosy Association, and members of Shanti Balika Hostel.

The July meeting was followed by a "Save the Trees" campaign in September, for which WEF Nepal was also responsible. The campaign meeting was chaired by Mr Dhruba Bahadur Shrestha, General Secretary of WEF Nepal, who expressed the hope that the spirit shown in planting the trees would be kept up, and that the pupils would continue to protect and care for the new trees.

New South Wales

Two summer events took place at Kinma School, Terrey Hills, a school which claims to offer an innovative environment where children of from

three to twelve years can enjoy learning; the school's educational philosophy is built on co-operation, trust, integrity and friendship.

The First event was the visit in August of Jack Wilson, Principal Lecturer in Primary Education at Trent Polytechnic, Nottingham. The School Extension Activity was arranged in conjunction with WEF NSW, and Jack Wilson spoke to an invited audience of parents and friends on "New Approaches to Topic Work: What Knowledge is worthwhile? and How can children be helped to think in an analytical and critical way."

This was followed, in September, by a One-Day Conference on a subject of widespread concern: "What Really Matters...? Assessment Perspectives for Parents, Students and Teachers."

Tasmania

I heard from the Tasmanian Section during the summer that this year's Clarice McNamara Award goes to Dr W N Oats, OBE. The presentation in Launceston was to be followed by the Honora Deane Lecture, Dr Oat's subject being "Education for Peace". At the time it was hoped that Ruth Rogers, his sister-in-law and herself a former recipient of the Clarice McNamara Award, would be in Launceston for the occasion.

The Spectre of Shyness: Helping the Shy Student

Brenda Lawrence

Abstract

It is known that shyness is prevalent among children from a very young age through to adolescence, and that it affects different individuals in different ways. This article addresses the difficulty of defining shyness and attempts to highlight the attempts made to combat the whole spectrum of debilitating episodes from occasional feelings of awkwardness to traumatic episodes of anxiety that totally disrupt a young person's life. Other negative personality variables that are associated with shyness are considered, and various strategies are put forward that can be used by teacher/counsellors to help personal student development and foster positive attitudes towards themselves and school.

Introduction

Shy students can be described as being over-anxious and sensitive about themselves in situations that require some kind of social interaction with others. This can lead to timid or withdrawn behaviour or inappropriate overt attention seeking in the classroom combined with emotional and cognitive distress allied to low self-esteem. How problematic then for the teacher called to monitor and evaluate a student in English orally or for attitude formation through personal and social education. There is a pressing need to consider strategies for change in assisting the shy in light of oral assessment requirements of the National Curriculum.

Most shy children have problems in meeting people, making new friends and enjoying new and different experiences in school and in the general social environment. From these situations stem negative affective states such as depression, loneliness, a lack of assertiveness and a difficulty in expressing opinions. Excessive reticence makes it difficult for other people to appreciate the shy individual's true qualities and assets, and this poor self-projection including the tendency of some teachers to

stereotype the shy, makes the latter appear unfriendly, snobbish and disinterested in relating to others. The excessive self-consciousness of shy students makes difficulties in communication and thinking in the presence of others, especially in the group classroom situation. This has obvious implications for the assessment and profiling strategies currently being developed to fulfil National Curriculum requirements.

Many researchers think of shyness in terms of a continuum. At one end are those very introverted children who feel more comfortable with privacy and solitude. The middle range includes the bulk of shy individuals who feel intimidated and awkward in certain situations and with certain types of people especially their peers or those in authority. Their discomfort is strong enough to disturb their lives making it difficult to say what they think or do what they would like. This type of shyness may take the form of blushing, obvious embarrassment, or discomfort may be concealed behind offensive behaviour.

At the far end of the shyness continuum are those individuals whose fear of people knows no bounds - the chronically shy. They experience extreme dread whenever called on to do something in front of others, and are so overwhelmed by anxiety that all they want to do is to run away or hide. These extreme behaviours are not limited to the young, nor do they dissipate with age. Confronting the problem during adolescence is therefore obviously important and teachers are well placed to facilitate this.

A great many children are shy in a situation which is new to them, which makes them feel insecure. The best evidence for this comes from research on infants but everyday experience appears to confirm that the same need for security exists in older children; for example, moving house to a new area, or beginning at a new school and meeting new peers and teachers.

In terms of personality development, one of the most important kinds of novelty, is role novelty. As children mature, they are required to adopt new roles - from being the baby of the family to being an older sibling, and adolescence especially is a period of rapid shifts in roles, as young people start assuming adult roles. Each time a new role is assumed, the novelty usually causes shyness.

As previously stated, research strongly suggests that shyness is associated with low self-esteem and depression. Shy adolescents especially, report that they are often lonely and are reluctant to get involved in relationships, especially with the opposite sex (Richmond 1987). They also seem to experience specific educational problems and tend to avoid contributing to classroom discussion. do not seek help from teachers and have a more negative attitude toward school than non-shy students (Friedman, 1980). Some research has suggested that shyness may be a contributory factor in delinquency and drug or alcohol abuse among adolescents. (Zimbardo and Radl 1981).

Changing Attitudes and Behaviour

The first barrier to conquer is the myth that personality is unchangeable. Psychology, religion and other social institutions promote beliefs that lead us to think of ourselves as possessing a personality or force which is static and unchangeable. Such a view makes all change superficial and temporary. A substantial body of evidence exists to support the opposite conclusion, namely that human personality and behaviour are quite changeable when the situation changes. So to change behaviour we must look to factors in a current situation that maintain that behaviour, as well as focus on alterations in the situation that will call forth and support desirable behaviours. Sometimes for shy individuals the desire to be no longer shy is tempered by the knowledge that they will have to take more risks in initiating action. Also, shyness may be a convenient shield, preventing exposure to even worse feelings - being unwanted, unloved, uninteresting, or regarded as unintelligent.

Shy children must be encouraged by parents and peers as well as teachers to understand that change is possible if one believes that by sacrificing some of the seeming "gains" of shyness, they will be rewarded with far greater and most positive attributes. It should be remembered that only a minority of those individuals who are presently shy have always been so, and that there are many adults who have conquered their shyness.

The shy student must be helped to change his or her attitude and have some positive and coherent plan to follow which will modify behaviour. The best way to do this is to try and

*"Some shy children
improve when they
experience social success."*

understand oneself and one's shyness better, to ask what in particular makes me shy and why, and what strategies I myself can undertake to try to solve them. What help do I

personally need from parents, teachers and other professionals to try and alleviate shyness, to build up my self-esteem and lower anxiety and stress levels.

Some Psychological Techniques to Consider

There is a significant relationship between low self-esteem and high levels of anxiety and shyness. When self-esteem is high, anxiety levels tend to be low and shyness does not exist. It therefore makes sense to try to build up the confidence of the shy child lacking in self-esteem.

There are many methods and strategies employed by psychologists and counsellors for building up self-esteem, and most of these have the following underlying philosophy. Individuals should be encouraged to recognise their personal strengths and weaknesses, both physical, and intellectual and set themselves realistic goals that can be accomplished.

The most popular approach in tackling problems of adjustment in schools has been *the social-skills training programme* which is designed to improve social competence with peers, parents and authority figures through behaviour (Franco, Christoff, Cumming, S. and Kelly, 1983).

Most shy subjects lack the ability and confidence necessary to successfully engage in

satisfying social interactions. Because of this some psychologists researching in the field of shyness, have tended to emphasise the importance of life experience in understanding the success of the social-skills approach. They tend to look at micro-behaviours, such as the amount of eye-contact and duration of speech. They also argue for the need to assess skills such as the flow of an interaction and how it is structured and developed. Good social skills involve attending to one's partner and many training processes encourage active listening, empathic responses, respect for others' rights and to reciprocate the intimacy of self-disclosure.

Teachers of PSE and school counsellors naturally do not have the time or the expertise to help the chronically shy child.

Short term intervention may suffice for most, but some individuals may need extended and individual counselling to overcome private and chronic states of shyness. It must also

be considered a possibility that shyness may sometimes be an obvious manifestation of a much deeper psychological disorder, and then all an individual teacher / counsellor can do is refer a child to a specialist.

Some shy children improve when they experience social success. A change in behaviour patterns leads to a change in attitudes, feelings and cognitions and rewarding interactions have a positive effect and more self-confidence follows. To bring about success in social situations some experts (Hammerlie, Montgomery, 1982) have advocated *a biased interaction technique* in which the shy subjects participate in many interactions that have been purposely structured to ensure a positive experience and successful interaction. Other researchers (Arnkoff, et al 1984) advocate a cognitive approach to the treatment of shyness. They argue that shy individuals have extremely negative and irrational beliefs about themselves and over-estimate the potential threat of a situation. By changing the way shy children think about themselves, it is argued that they can also change the way they feel.

Parent and Teacher Intervention

There are obvious implications for teachers that as part of their "good practice" they recognise the need to assist the shy pupils and explore different strategies. Teachers and parents can help shy children to overcome or cope better with shyness in many ways if they are willing to reach out and make the effort. Sometimes simply by taking care in what they say and do, by the supportive environment they help create; and more often than they are aware of they can help indirectly by the examples they set. Because of the central roles that parents and teachers occupy in the lives of children, they can create and intensify shyness. They often do so unintentionally because of the powerful needs children and students have for so many of the

"Teachers can also encourage a more balanced and rational state of mind in their shy students."

rewards we can grant. By recognising each child's individual integrity, parents and teachers can help them to develop a sense of personal worth. By being understanding of their problems,

their difficulties in learning to live in a complex and changing world can be eased.

Individuals live and ultimately survive interdependent on one another. However, the strength of the group depends on the self-reliance of each individual. Parents and teachers are all too ready to nurture dependence on children until they become quiet, passive, well mannered and rewarded by all for being obedient nonentities. To avoid this Zimbardo (1977) sets out a seven point plan:

(i) Recognise that passivity is an alien state for children and all living things.

(ii) Do not encourage dependence in children or pupils simply because it allows one to better control and manage them.

(iii) Teach children to be responsible for themselves as soon as they can.

(iv) Make a list of all the activities each child is responsible for, and a second list of all the things one does for the child. Try moving items from the 'wish' to the 'do' list. Discuss these responsibilities with the children and see if there are other items they would like or feel ready for. Responsibilities are not just household chores,

but include grooming one's self, caring for property and making arrangements for various events.

(v) Encourage children to be responsible for others - brothers and sisters with homework, classmates who need assistance, parents when distressed.

(vi) Allow for mistakes and permit the child sufficient time to become more self-reliant. Shy children fear taking any action because of their anxiety about failing or doing it wrong. Teach children to take calculated risks and to handle failure. The message is that the child's attempts may fail to get a desired goal, but the child is never a failure. Failure means either the goal was wrong or the means to it were wrong.

(vii) Prepare children to be comfortable with themselves when they are alone. This means making available private space and personal time for the child. It also means not filling up the child's life with planned group activities. On occasion it may mean encouraging the child in a solitary activity, such as a walk, or a visit to the library.

Practical Classroom Strategies

So overcoming shyness is a complex problem that demands a variety of different strategies and techniques, and the involvement of all concerned with the shy child, be they parents, siblings, teachers, or peer group. However, in the wider school environment and specific classroom situation, there is much the individual teacher can do to encourage the shy anxious adolescents he or she will inevitably encounter.

In an individual teacher counselling interview or group PSE lesson the shy should be encouraged to examine their personal history and concentrate on positive successful memories, and forgive mistakes and failures. Negative feelings of embarrassment, guilt and shame, and worrying too much about how they feel others have let them down should be relegated to the past, and they should be encouraged to look to the future in a more positive frame of mind.

Teachers can also encourage a more balanced and rational state of mind in their shy students. They should avoid over-critical remarks, and

explain that behaviour and school work is open to evaluation and constructive feedback and this should be accepted for self growth. Implying that shy people are personal failures in any way, should naturally always be avoided.

The encouragement of toleration towards others intentions and a more generous and easy-going outlook on life and others opinions should be fostered. It should be remembered that different people see the same situation in different terms of reality: there is always an alternative side to every viewpoint. Also, it must be remembered that sometimes failure and disappointment are blessings in disguise; perhaps the goals set were not right at a particular time, and that the toil, worry and effort were not worth it.

Parents, teachers and peers can help the shy to help themselves in the realm of social interaction. Many shy adolescents feel that they are isolated, that they are the only ones with a problem. By encouraging them to make the effort to enjoy other children's company deciding what they want from friendships and what can be given in return will help structure the basis for interaction and relationships. Pointing out that other adolescents have their own fears and insecurities and might want help and understanding also encourages a positive attitude and re-directs their focus of attention away from introspection.

Many shy people are too over-protective of their ego; they are frightened of getting hurt by a social or emotional rebuff. Their self-esteem must be encouraged, but also they must be made aware that life cannot be lived in isolation. The encouragement of self-praise and congratulation is very important when dealing with sensitive adolescents. They should be set short-term goals that are realistic to achieve, and progress should be evaluated from time to time.

Finally, it must be remembered that individuals are not just passive reactors to situations. Good and bad experiences abound throughout the whole of life, and childhood is only one phase of a long study. Each individual must try not to see certain situations as obstacles, but as challenges which can be turned into accomplishments. Instead of worrying about

how to live and always preparing for the worst, the shy should be encouraged to forget "the self" and become involved and absorbed in living. In this way the spectre of shyness will become less important and recede.

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The beginnings of international understanding

Sarah Lambert and Patrick Wiegand

Abstract

The authors describe their investigations of the views which children hold of distant places, people and customs. They use their findings to illustrate the importance of increasing systematic education in these areas to reduce prejudice.

The final report of the National Curriculum Working Group for geography (DES, 1990) acknowledged that too few opportunities had been taken hitherto in primary schools in England and Wales to extend pupils' interests, knowledge and understanding to 'distant and unfamiliar places'. Previously there appears to have been a feeling amongst primary teachers that young children's experience of distant peoples and places is very limited and that the study of foreign countries is conceptually more demanding and therefore far less appropriate than the study of the immediate local environment. Happily, the working group report redresses this imbalance through its emphasis on the European Community in Attainment Target 3 and the Wider World in Attainment Target 4.

Young children do indeed have direct experience of the wider world through their own travel (Wiegand, 1990) and sometimes this experience is substantial. They also acquire much vicarious or 'second-hand' information about the world through television, books, comics and listening to adults and other children talking. But attitudes towards other peoples are not necessarily based on knowledge, whether acquired directly or indirectly. "Within the individual, the sequence is frequently the development of a prejudice first and the perfection of the techniques of differentiation later" (Horowitz, 1941). Once established, attitudes towards other countries appear difficult to shift and last well into adulthood. Confused notions of, for example, "national character" remain widespread. This was highlighted in the United Kingdom by the "Ridley affair", a few weeks after the publication of the geography working group report. In this case the resignation of the Secretary of State for Trade and Industry was followed by the revelation that a meeting of government ministers and

academics had, in their discussions of German reunification, identified what they regarded as aspects of "the German national character". These apparently included "angst, aggressiveness, assertiveness, bullying, egotism, inferiority complex and sentimentality" (The Guardian, 16 July 1990).

Against this background we wanted to find out more about the very beginnings of international understanding amongst children. The "known world" of 7 and 11 year olds has been described elsewhere (Wiegand, 1991) but we were concerned to attempt to chart the known world of the nursery, that is of children aged 3 and 4. What sorts of knowledge and understanding do children at this very early age have of the wider world? Does this form a pattern? What is the nature of their proto-attitudes to other peoples? What are the first "scratches on their minds"? (Isaacs, 1958)

We worked with 80 three and four year olds in a nursery attached to a primary school in northern England. All the children were white and few had travelled far beyond the local authority housing estate on which they live. Most of the children were part time, attending either in the morning or the afternoon. We attempted to record the place knowledge and attitudes held by the children by keeping a large chart on which was recorded all the statements which children made in response to stimuli presented to them about distant places. A number of devices were used to prompt the children's talk. For example, a picture of black African children herding cattle was used with small groups, the teacher leading children through a sequence of questions such as:

- What can you see in the picture?*
- Tell me more about ...*
- What do you think will happen next?*

The children's answers were either recorded on tape or by an observer. Children's responses mentioning particular countries by name or implying place knowledge or revealing attitudes towards places were recorded on the chart. The responses of individual children were followed up on a later occasion and this information added

to the chart. As well as pictures, children were presented with models (e.g. of an igloo) and dolls (e.g. in national costume) to see if these prompted recognition. We also presented the children with a large inflatable globe and played a "magic carpet" game in which, through imaginative play, children could travel anywhere in the world they wanted to go. We hoped, through all these means, to identify what countries these very young children had heard of and what they knew or thought about them and the people who lived there.

It has to be said at the outset that responses from children at this age are very variable. The stimuli we presented elicited an excited response from children, nothing at all from others. For some children there was no evidence of any

awareness at all of the wider world. It also has to be remembered that what is distant to a young child may be quite close to home. A "long way away" may be a ten

minute car drive and the separation of "home" and "abroad" is beyond most children at this age. At this age too there is generally no notion of a hierarchy of places (e.g. city, county, country). Theme parks, both near (Kinderland) and far (Disneyland) have particular salience for young children as distant places, the suffix "-land" perhaps enhancing their status as country equivalents. Nevertheless, there was some pattern to the children's responses and based on the places they themselves mentioned, we feel we can tentatively define their "known world" as:

Spain, France, Africa, America and Australia
If this area defines the extent of nursery children's known world, what images do they hold of these places?

"Spain" was a beach, hotel, sea, sun and sand. Only two children had been to Spain but these images were strong in the minds of all those who recognised the country name. "Australia" prompted two images, one of the beach and sun, the other of kangaroos, crocodiles and koalas. "Africa", and the picture of children herding cattle prompted an almost universal negative response. Although most of the children thought

"The beginnings of international understanding are fragile."

that the children in the picture would later go on to do things they themselves would do (have chips and beans for tea and watch television), most expressed some form of dislike.

"I don't want to see them. I don't like them."
(Jemma)

"She's horrible" (David)

"I wouldn't play with them. They're black."
(Joanne)

Race prejudice in nursery children has, of course been described elsewhere and our evidence would seem to confirm those findings (see, for example, Jeffcoate, 1977).

Two of the children immediately associated black children in the picture with starvation.

"African children don't have any food. Their mummies and daddies don't give it to them. They don't like to be fat. That's why they don't get any food." (Michaela)

"Well, they're from Africa and they don't have any food for the babies. They're starving."
(Martin)

When other children were confronted with this idea it seemed clear that the message from home of "eat up your dinner because there are African children who are starving" had already taken a firm hold in their minds.

We also identified a number of "environments" recognised by the children. These form a set of discrete landscapes and associations. We derived them from talking to children about pictures and collecting their responses. For example, children were shown a picture of Inuit children in a village in Canada.

Teacher: Tell me what you can see in this picture.

Child: It's Snowland.

Teacher: Do you know where Snowland is?

Child: It's the North Pole.

Teacher: Go on!

Child: Father Christmas has got some reindeers.

From conversations like this we accumulated clusters of ideas which the children contributed when they were shown pictures. We then assembled a number of related groups of concepts which appeared to be shared by many children. We suggest that these may form the first environmental awareness at a global scale

of young children. Children as young as three and four seem already to recognise them as "natural regions" and are quick to spot instances of mismatch.

"desert island": beach, palm trees, blue sea, hot sun, pirates, Robinson Crusoe

"jungle": trees, monkeys, parrots, hot, Tarzan

"bibleland": grass, sheep, goats, shepherds, Jesus

"Sahel": sand, starving, black people

"North Pole": snow, igloo, "Eskimo", Father Christmas, reindeer, penguins

"Costa": beach, sea, hot sun, hotels, holidays

Our investigation was partial. But we feel that we can offer some observations. Firstly that many children in the nursery school already have some knowledge about far away places. Some places seem to be known more than others among the group and a proto-environmental awareness has begun to emerge. Secondly, that children have already begun to form attitudes about distant people and places by the age of three or four. This we feel has implications for the curriculum of the nursery school. We suggest for example that nursery teachers attempt to include positive images of foreigners in their work through stories and pictures. The beginnings of international understanding are fragile. It's encouraging that such young children are aware of the Sahel famine but we are concerned that this image is equated with Africa as a whole. We suggest it would be helpful from this age to talk to children about particular countries in Africa rather than to use the name of the continent.

We feel that this is a legitimate area for further investigation and that it would be worth exploring further the sources of very young children's information, despite the methodological problems involved. Many children appear, by the ages of three and four, to have already established a platform of knowledge and attitudes about the wider world. But their knowledge is inevitably patchy and their attitudes may be biased from the very beginning. After much neglect in the primary phase, there is now a need for distant and unfamiliar places to be brought into the nursery school curriculum.

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PERESTROIKA AND THE SOVIET TEACHERS

Pam Poppleton, Neil Bolton,Robert Pullin and George Riseborough

Abstract

The authors describe their impressions of a visit to the Soviet Union, in which they visited six schools, and discussed the impact of perestroika on the educational system with soviet teachers.

Introduction

In November 1989, a group of four colleagues from the University of Sheffield’s Division of Education visited six schools in the Soviet Union and talked with forty secondary school teachers about their professional lives, careers and work during this critical period in their country’s history. Three of the schools were in Moscow, two in Riga (Latvia) and one in Tbilisi (Georgia). Our hosts at the Moscow Academy of Pedagogical Sciences had arranged for us to visit these three geographically and culturally distinct areas which have since captured the world’s awareness with startling clarity. The occasion of our visit was to extend a cross-cultural study of secondary school teacher perceptions of their work which now includes ten countries and to consolidate a Research Agreement between the two institutions.

Of the six schools three were urban, specialised English teaching schools and are good examples of the schools which have been widely regarded as the jewels in the Soviet educational crown. Varying in their particular subject specialism they are the nearest equivalent to the traditional British grammar school in selective entrance, curriculum, ethos and stress on standards of achievement and behaviour.

A rural school attached to a village collective farm in Latvia reminded us strongly of our own comprehensive schools except that it received a good deal of financial help in the form of resource provision from the farm. Many pupils went on to study at local agricultural colleges at the age of 17 and returned to work at the farm to provide both continuity and constant skill renewal. In a similar way, a technical/vocational high school in Moscow had a reciprocal relationship with the Tupolev aircraft factory which provides lathes and other equipment and recruits a number of young workers and technicians each year. This was a single-sex institution. The school had experimented with a mixed intake but had eventually excluded girls,

given the sponsoring employer had no great demand for female labour.

Finally, in Tbilisi, we visited what was described as an urban, 'Christian Progressive' school which was established as an experimental school by one of the leaders of a well-known group of 'teacher-innovators', Shalva Amonashvili. A number of the teachers at this school work part of the time in the teaching laboratory in the school where they develop teaching materials and monitor their implementation. At Tbilisi school No.1 staff are working on materials and methods which encourage children to make positive progress. The school has made most strides with the youngest six-year olds by using encouragement and praise and stressing the development of trust between teacher and each individual child. This school was very popular with the local intelligentsia, a consequent paradox being that the progressivism was combined with large class sizes.

From our conversations, it was clear that perestroika was being expressed in a number of different ways, some of which mean that the Soviet system is moving in opposite directions from Britain.

Decentralisation

From the beginning of the soviet period the education system and schools in particular, were totally centralised. Teachers have been accustomed from their initial college training to adopt standard textbooks (only a single orthodox textbook per subject) and teach by accepted methods according to a centrally devised curriculum and timetable. Even the 1984 Education Reform, devised to improve the status of schoolteachers in society and attract more high-calibre people into teaching, did not fundamentally seek to address this problem and give teachers greater autonomy in their professional lives.

The relaxation of central control has brought a number of issues to the fore. In Latvia and Georgia it receives expression as a concern for

the educational implications of national identity, but it has also raised questions of resources and teacher training.

The nationalist issue was expressed in a most forthright fashion in Latvia. The Director of Education of Riga District told us:

"We have stood our former centralised system upside down. Before it was a top-down system and Moscow told us exactly what to do. Now we have inverted the system and we are working from a local national base. We have gone so far as to produce a concept - the understanding of what a national Latvian education system should look like."

Perestroika in Latvia has involved schools being encouraged to diversify the traditional

" Teachers reported having more freedom to work as they wished and were experimenting with different methods."

curriculum to meet local needs, and it has intensified the expression of emergent regional and national feelings. It is reflected in the schools by the emphasis now being placed on the role of folklore in the curriculum as a medium

for moral and aesthetic education. One Latvian teacher in the village school expressed it thus:

"It is particularly important time for us at the moment since we now have the opportunity to restore our national cultural tradition to its former glory. It is something of a moment, if you like, of a national renaissance. I would very much like to spend more time studying folklore and music to make these resources available to children generally."

In the new atmosphere of openness it is not surprising that the re-interpretation of History becomes a pressing problem. Nationalist feeling gives this issue a particular edge in Latvia and Georgia, but all Soviet schools are faced with the problem of reconstructing history now that the "official" version has been abandoned. In some cases, local groups of teachers are writing their own materials, but there is a chronic shortage of textbooks and resources for the new curriculum.

The shortage is not restricted to history but relates to all subjects. One teacher of English and German, when asked what would help her to develop her professional competence, had no hesitation in saying

"Firstly, it is new textbooks. I am only able to work with textbooks I have brought back from West Germany. We have been learning foreign languages now by such awful materials for so long....My greatest difficulty is that with the changing attitude I have not got appropriate materials that I can use and I have got the most old-fashioned textbooks".

This complaint was frequently heard. The lack of resources concerns not only textbooks but was voiced also in relation to equipment and relevant curriculum materials. Even the school linked to the Tupolev factory was waiting for modern equipment.

How are teachers being helped to cope with the demands placed on them? No teacher commented spontaneously on the usefulness of the entitlement to one term's in-service training every five years. We did not gain a sense of this period of training out of school as assisting teachers with their immediate problems in school. In the experimental school of Shalva Amonashvili in Tbilisi there was a clearly-articulated child-centred philosophy which teachers were attempting to implement, but nowhere did we find the kind of in-service training we are familiar with in the UK in which in-school curriculum development is the focus for staff development. The role of central educational research agencies was not commented upon or was seen as being distant from the school itself. As in Britain interests were deemed to be theoretical rather than practical. One teacher commented:

"So we have got some scientific research institutes in our country... their aim is to find out something more concerning the different processes in schools and we can't see that they have any results in this field. They produce a great number of different books and they are no good for no one."

The overall impression we obtained, despite the small number of experimental schools established by the "innovators", was that teachers had not yet reached the stage when they could confidently assume curriculum innovation was in their hands. Indeed, Gennadi

Yagodin in a report as chair of the USSR State Committee on Public Education (1989) states:

"Most teachers (72% according to the findings of a recent sociological survey) desire changes in the schools and are in favour of educational restructuring, but half of them do not know what needs to be done and how."

Nevertheless there were several indications that new, more informal methods of teaching were being adopted. Teachers reported having more freedom to work as they wished and were experimenting with different methods, asking their pupils about course content. There was some anxiety connected with this new uncertainty but the majority of teachers we interviewed welcomed their new-found opportunities.

The Schools

The advent of "glasnost" and "perestroika" encouraging open critical evaluation of all aspects of soviet society produce interestingly contradictory trends in education. The new freedom publicly to criticise educational institutions and practices gave rise to paradoxical movements. On the one hand a

fierce attack in the press reflected open condemnation of the specialised foreign language schools, which have, since the 1950s, produced many high-quality

translators and interpreters and highly qualified entrants to universities. This attack almost led to their closure in 1988, on the grounds that they were elitist and produced self-interested students who had a greater regard for themselves and foreign cultures than for socialist ideals. On the other hand open censure by both parents and educationalists of schools' inefficiencies and poor results published in the press, have led to a strong official force in educational politics openly fighting for greater differentiation in content and teaching methods and aimed at developing the more able pupils as a means of raising standards in education. Ten years ago, this would have been ideological heresy.

As far as we could see, none of the teachers we interviewed were questioning the continued

"Good teachers teach better under perestroika but poor teachers do worse."

existence of the specialised schools or the differentiated nature of the system, though the need for change within them was acknowledged:

"I think that all these changes have given me more opportunities, that I can choose things let's say how to teach, what to teach... but not very much because our school curriculum still exists but if...let's say, we are discussing different authors in the literature, we can interpret them in a more democratic way. Also relations have been improved. They (pupils) have become more open, more frank and they trust me and I somehow rely on them and it makes me feel satisfied. I love my work."

But, asked if she would go to work in the general school down the road for another 150 roubles per month, the teacher replied:

"No, I think I wouldn't. I don't know how it is in other countries but I think here, teachers are those people who don't think mostly of money...."

The Teachers

Out of 70 secondary schools in the Riga district the Director (who was extremely open about the problems) acknowledged that 8 had sufficiently severe disciplinary problems that their teachers had been given the freedom to teach as they saw fit. He went on to comment that:

"good teachers teach better under perestroika but poor teachers do worse,"

a problem that the open systems of the West have been addressing during the 1980s under the title 'Teaching Quality'. In the Soviet Union a number of problems come together to confound any easy solution. It is common (as it was here many years ago) for pupils who are ambitious to study and get higher qualifications to commit themselves to teaching for a period of three years after graduation. If, after completing their teacher training, they are unable to find jobs for themselves they may then be directed by the state and end up teaching in isolated rural areas where schools and resources are pitifully poor. Thus, poor teachers are unlikely to become any better though there are compulsory periods of in-service provision every 5 years.

The impression was that for many teachers there was a high degree of career immobility. Indeed, many teachers had a strong sense of 'the ideal pupil' and 'the ideal school', and having found these were not prepared to consider movement elsewhere not even for far greater pay. Generally, the urban teachers we met valued highly their teaching careers and were not prepared to consider movement to the countryside.

British teachers may also be interested to know that an appraisal system is operated on a regular three-year basis for a rise in salary and, on the basis of this a teacher might be recommended for promotion from teacher to senior teacher and then, on a district or city-wide basis to a methods teacher (similar to our advisory teacher). For this to happen a teacher must demonstrate his or, more usually, her high degree of competence through the good results of pupils in 'competitions' which are held around every two years. At the present time neither assessment of teacher competence by classroom observation nor further study are taken into consideration. Teachers appear to accept these arrangements unquestioningly.

Teachers were very much aware of the low status the profession had in Soviet society. Many bemoaned the fact that their salary was generally lower than average earnings. There are consequent problems of recruitment and retention in a situation where the country overall will require a 50% increase in teacher numbers in the coming decade. The following is a typical exchange.

Interviewer - What is your personal opinion about the current status of the teacher in your society?

Teacher A - In the past, teachers were regarded somewhat differently, they were the people who brought enlightenment to the people about 40 years ago. But now the teacher commands no authority. Just as education and upbringing itself commands no particular degree of respect.

Teacher B - They don't pay us for our intellect and intelligence.

Teacher A- If teachers want to earn something, they have got to give so many lessons and they become almost like a robot, like a machine they have not energy with which to do anything else. They are no longer like a person transmitting humanity to other people, they are just like automatons. And of course the child similarly can't understand why this kind of thing is needed by them.

Teacher C- I would agree with that. I think that only in the last two years have there been developments of a positive type when the intelligentsia is coming to understand the fact that the future is dependent on the quality of teaching. Of course, although the intelligentsia understands this, the ordinary people still have a long way to go and it will be a long time before they come to this realisation.

Soviet schoolteachers are now faced with a number of insufferable paradoxes in their professional lives. They have to differentiate without being elitist, increase standards without resources, develop individualists who maintain commitment to socialist principles and they are encouraged to develop individualised courses with no textbooks and teaching aids from which to choose and the frustrations caused by these contradictions were repeatedly voiced by the teachers we interviewed.

The Market Economy

The infant market economy in the Soviet Union has already permeated education with the result that teachers can now exploit the system rather than being exploited by it and this is having unexpected consequences. Teachers' salaries are, in many cases, lower than those of factory workers though they were raised after the Afghan war in order, we were told to encourage demobbed soldiers to train as teachers. The government, like the profession itself, is anxious to increase the proportion of men in an overwhelmingly female occupation. The ordinary secondary school teacher is paid 210 to

250 roubles a month (250 in internal purchasing power) according to the hours worked (normally 18 per week), the subject taught and extra-teaching responsibilities. In other words, differentiated jobs earn differentiated salaries. As in the UK, there is a big shortage of maths and science teachers who tend to be men. In order to cover the teaching of mathematics, one Moscow Principal shared four maths teachers' salaries between three, raising them to 365 roubles. They would, of course, be working more than normal hours.

This kind of strategy may be on the increase under a threat of teacher loss due to the establishment of teacher cooperatives. Arrangements are now permitted whereby a teacher can join a group of colleagues offering courses after school hours on hired premises operating as a commercial venture. Such cooperatives are able to provide superior resources to the schools out of the fees they charge and the demand is high from parents and students who see no future in the overcrowded classrooms and low motivational levels of many Soviet schools. As a result, many teachers, particularly of Art, Craft and Languages, are finding that they can earn more in a few evenings than in a week of full-time teaching and are leaving their jobs. Some schools are already having difficulty in filling the gaps and a Moscow Principal regarded it as "a very serious problem nowadays and especially in the future". It is a direct result of Perestroika.

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REVIEWS

Managing Behaviour Problems

Author: Diane Montgomery

Published by Hodder & Stoughton (1989)

ISBN 0 340 40832 4 Price 6.95 (paperback)
169pp

'Managing Behaviour Problems' has been written by Diane Montgomery primarily for teachers and is intended to be a practical guide and handbook to managing and controlling such problems. According to the author each technique presented is based upon extensive trials and evaluation by teachers who attended in-service courses. The book includes a selective review of the literature.

The book begins with the chapter on 'Defining Behaviour Problems'. In answer to the question "What constitutes a classroom behaviour problem?" Montgomery suggests that it can be any kind of behaviour which prevents the teacher from teaching and the learner from learning. As such she considers behaviour problems to include boredom, fear of failure, alienation and peer oppression. In keeping with this broad definition she attempts to cover a very wide range of issues and includes brief sections on Childhood and Adolescent Depression, Child Abuse, School Refusal, Stealing and Emotional Distress. Also included are sections on 'Avoiding confrontation with colleagues' and 'Staffroom rules for beginners', the latter of which makes amusing reading.

However, as the author points out the main problems which teachers are concerned to overcome are attention seeking and disruption, because these interfere most with the progress of lessons. She cites studies which indicate a strong correlation between such behaviour problems and learning difficulties, and she makes the important point that various types of misbehaviour are often task avoidance strategies. Indeed one of the strong points of this book is the author's appreciation of curriculum content and presentation in relation to 'managing' behaviour problems. This aspect is covered quite extensively in various parts of the

book which includes sections on 'Meaningful Tasks' and 'Positive Cognitive Interventions (PCI)'. Two of the three appendices also cover curriculum related issues (Appendix 2 - Analysing Handwriting Errors, Appendix 3 - Approaches to Remediating Spelling Difficulties).

Another strong point of the book is the emphasis the author places on a 'positive approach', especially through the teacher creating opportunities for the pupil to succeed, and giving positive attention, praise and support. There is a particularly valuable section on 'Setting the Classroom Climate'. Perhaps one of the most easily remembered and most potent pieces of advice in the book relates to this emphasis on a positive approach, namely 'Catch them Being Good'!

I was pleased to see that there was a section on 'Rules' but a little surprised that in a list of four example rules three are negatively phrased (Don't talk whilst I am. Don't run in the classroom. Don't touch other people's property). The negative rule phrasing seems to be at odds with the emphasis on a positive approach and with the expressed need to make clear to the children what they should do rather than to require them to work this out from rules which tell them what they shouldn't do.

Although there is a section on 'Rewards and Punishment', the author appears to be relatively dismissing of 'punishment' and to some extent of tangible 'bribes' when discussing them. In reference to rewards she writes "Stars and stickers which have individual information value and serve to give public acclaim are perhaps the furthest one might wish to go in this respect. Even so they are to be avoided wherever possible." Whilst I appreciate the need to place a clear emphasis on a positive ethos, on reward intrinsic to activity, and on the use of genuine praise, I think that to be realistic one has also to give serious objective consideration to the use of more tangible rewards than praise and to the use of sanctions (however temporarily) if there is to be effective and systematic management of even

a moderate range of behaviour problems. For the same reason I was also disappointed to see that Time Out and Sending Out are only briefly discussed (together they receive only one and a half pages, more space is allocated to 'Parent Crushes on Teachers' than to 'Sending Out'..).

A general strategy for dealing with potential confrontation situations is discussed. This should be of particular value to the new teacher. It is suggested that the teacher initially 'deflects' the confrontation at the critical stage and put it on 'hold' (to prevent the other children from thinking that the teacher has ignored the behaviour and doesn't know what to do). Thereafter the use of Positive Cognitive Interventions and Counselling are recommended (both of which are fully described in the text).

The book also contains a number of useful sections which cover the non-verbal aspect of communication. The author sensibly suggests the use of non-verbal warnings as a low level first phase tactic to be used in managing behaviour. However, I felt somewhat uneasy about her frequent suggestion to employ the 'stink look'!

My main criticism of the book concerns Chapter 6 'Implementing a Behaviour Management Scheme'. Within this chapter there is a list of general aims which include inducing in the pupils a Positive Attitude to Learning, and for the teacher adopting a Supportive Positive Attitude, and objectives which include Positive Cognitive Interventions and Catch them Being Good. There are also sections entitled 'The Aims of a Behaviour Management Scheme' and 'What will the Scheme Involve?'. It is asserted that "as a result of using the scheme, the general classroom discipline will improve and work output will increase." and that "the scheme will work with any group of pupils and the strategies outlined have been piloted with children/pupils aged from three to nineteen." I read this particular chapter three times and despite this it did not become at all clear what the scheme actually is. It is also worth noting that this chapter is only six pages long, in contrast to Chapter 4 'Emotional Origins of Behaviour Problems' which is 15 pages long. In view of the

central importance of the Scheme and the value attributed to it I would like to have seen a more lengthy and more fully elaborated presentation (lest it be dismissed as the inevitably indescribable 'magic ingredient').

In Appendix 1 eight case studies are presented. There are all written by teachers and serve to give some idea of the various approaches used in relation to particular problems. Although examples of teacher intervention are given there do not appear to be any quantitative evaluations, the evaluations are really in the form of descriptive summaries. The author's introductory remark that "each technique presented is based upon extensive trials and evaluation by teachers who attended in-service courses..." led me to expect to see some objective, quantitative 'before and after' data rather than what amounts to not much more than lengthy anecdotes. However, as examples to give teachers a feel for what is involved, the case studies are a worthwhile inclusion.

Overall, I think that the author has made a creditable attempt to cover a wide range of issues concerned with managing behaviour problems as she has broadly defined them. Inevitably with such an approach some sections or aspects of the work will be relatively weak. Within what is included there is much valuable practical advice, some of it is in the form of easy to remember tips. Without wishing to reduce a book to a phrase and thereby apparently belittle it, I would nonetheless like to conclude by saying that I hope Diane Montgomery's book encourages all teachers to "Catch Them Being Good".

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Practical Teacher Appraisal

Diane Montgomery and Norma Hadfield
Kogan Page, 1989

This book sets out to present a system of appraisal, training techniques and evaluations of work in secondary schools. The title and the cover information give the impression that the book is concerned with teacher appraisal at all

phases of education and it is not until page 13 that a specific focus on the secondary stage is revealed it is a pity that the writer and publisher were not explicit about this.

In six chapters, the book attends to: The Essentials of Appraisal, The Essentials of Good Appraisal Systems, Survey Studies and Report Findings, Classroom Observation as Appraisal, The Appraisal Interview and The Appraisal of Headteachers. Each chapter is well set out with clear subheadings and summaries, and key points are indented for easy reference.

As you proceed through the book the ambiguity of the title reveals itself. For this is a book about the practice of teacher appraisal rather than a practical guide to designing, introducing and managing appraisal in schools. The examples provided are drawn from research projects on appraisal and tend to be generalised. Little attention is paid to the varied and different cultures of the schools involved and in the leadership challenge of introducing appraisal at

a time of rapid and accelerating change in education.

While the book contains a great deal of information about the processes involved in appraisal it fails to address the practical challenges of promoting appraisal as a key structure supportive to professional development and has little to say about how such a structure can become an implicit part of school management and development.

A reader looking for a briefing on the discrete parts of teacher appraisal will find much of interest in this book, but those searching for support for the practicalities of developing effective systems of review and development through collaborative management will need to look elsewhere.

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2nd INTERNATIONAL LEARNER MANAGED LEARNING CONFERENCE

to be held at the Silesian University at Opara, Czechoslovakia

9th - 13th September 1990

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- (c) Learners should, as early as possible, take responsibility for the management of their own education in association with and support from others. They should be helped to achieve both local involvement and a global perspective.
- (d) High achievement is best obtained by mobilising personal motivation and creativity within a context of open access to a variety of learning opportunities.
- (e) Methods of assessment should aim to describe achievement and promote self-esteem.

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